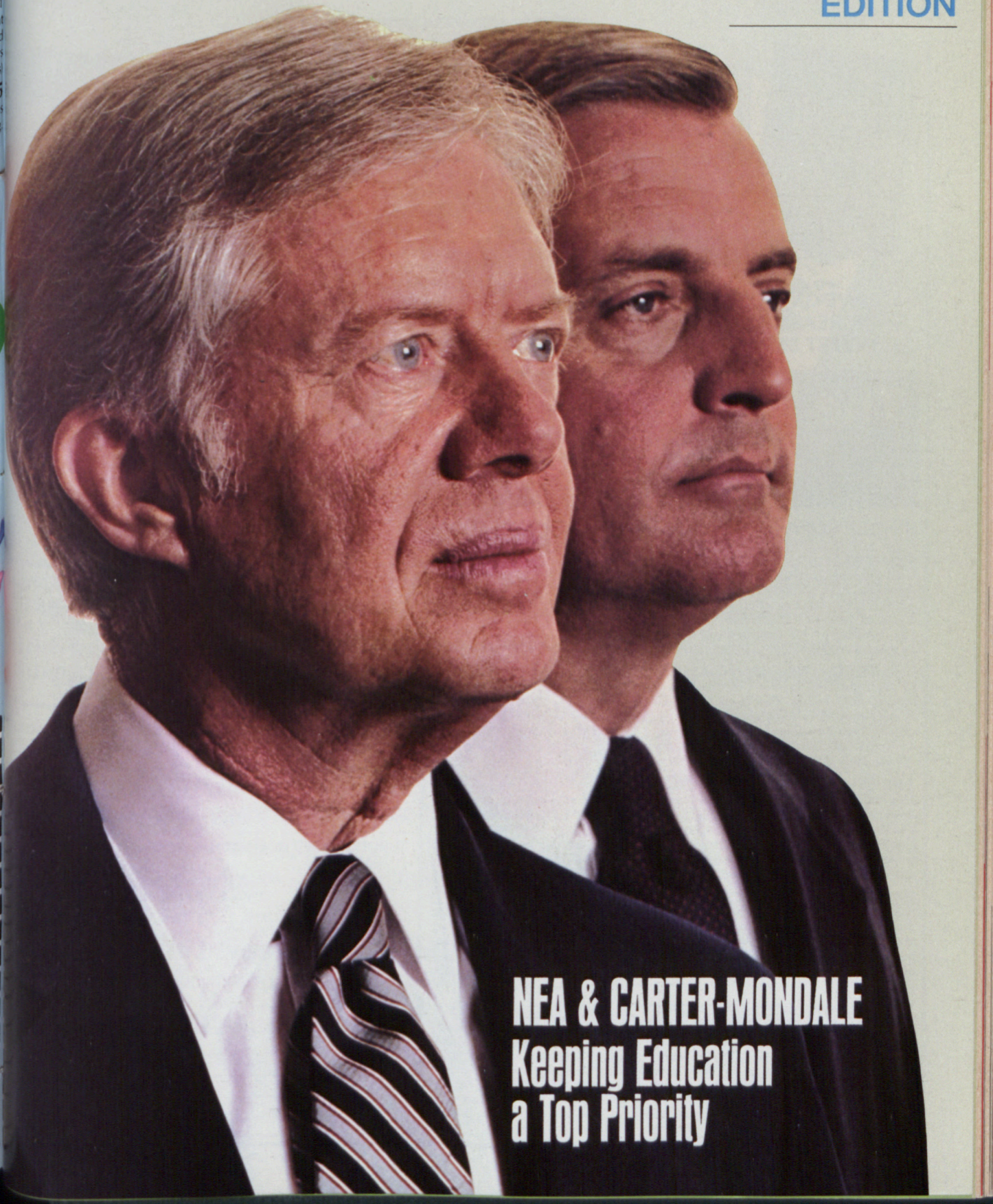
TODAY'S EDUCATION

Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

November-December 1980

SOCIAL STUDIES EDITION



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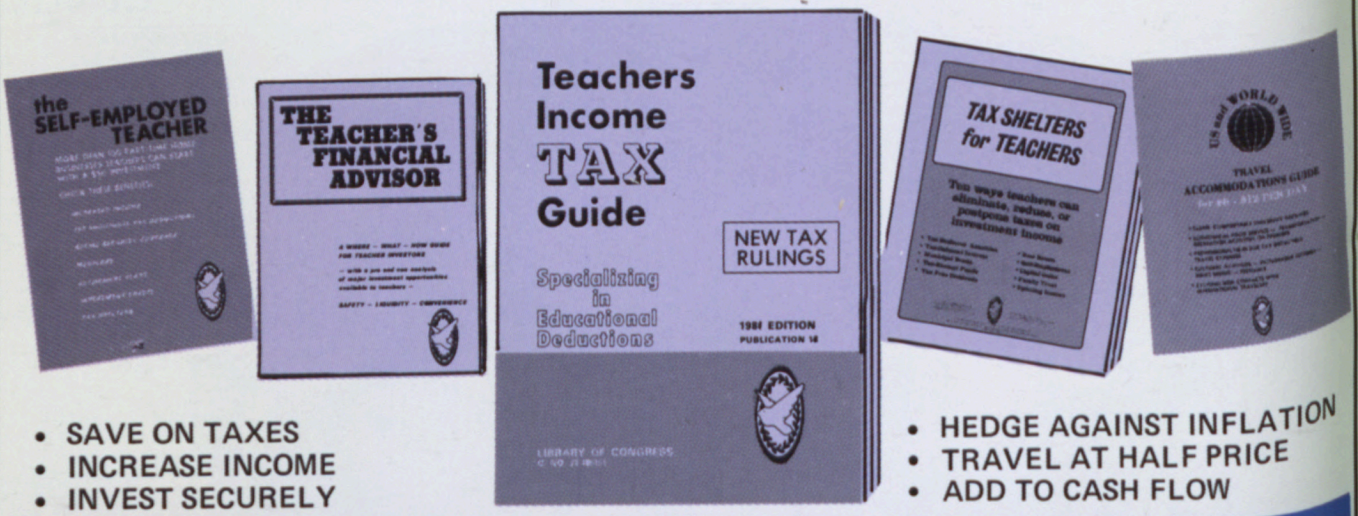

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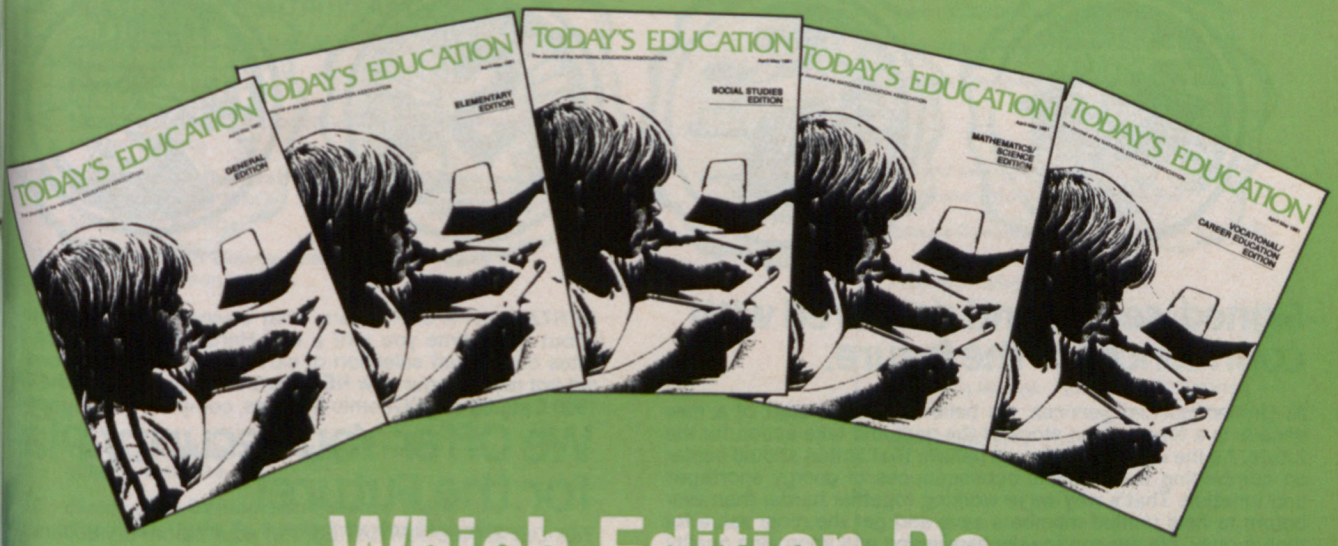

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Trends

Divorce Rate Rises Again, Affects More Children

In 1978 the divorce rate (number of divorces per 1,000 population), which had stabilized after a continual climb between 1963 and 1976, rose to 5.2—4 percent above the 1977 level—according to the National Center for Health Statistics. Provisional data for 1979 indicate a further rise in the divorce rate of 2 percent since 1978.

The total number of children involved in divorce in 1978 was estimated to be more than 1.1 million, a 4.7 percent increase over the 1977 total. The number of children involved in divorce in relation to the total number of children under 18 years old was 18.1 per 1,000—more than twice the 1965 rate and nearly three times the 1955 rate.

About Two-Thirds of Faculty Hold Tenure

Among full-time faculty members at public four-year colleges and universities in 1978-79, 69 percent were tenured and another 23 percent were in tenure-track positions, according to a survey by the Higher Education Panel of the American Council on Education. In private four-year institutions, 63 percent of the full-time faculty members were tenured and another 32 percent were in tenure-track positions. The survey of 1,200 four-year colleges and universities found more than 222,000 full-time faculty members in the physical sciences, engineering, mathematical sciences, life sciences, social sciences, humanities, and education.

Of the 12,400 faculty members considered for tenure in 1978-79, 58 percent were awarded tenure and 22 percent remained eligible for future reconsideration. The tenure approval rate was highest at private universities (74 percent) and lowest at private four-year colleges (49 percent).

Adult Share of Higher Education Enrollment Will Rise

By 1983, students over the age of 24 will constitute 40 percent of all college students; by 1988, they will make up 44 percent, says the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES).

Increases in the number of part-time students won't make up for a decrease in the number of full-time students, the report says. It predicts that enrollment will peak in 1981-82, then decrease slightly throughout the rest of the decade.

NCES also expects a decline in the number of college faculty and a continuing decline in the number of doctor's degrees awarded after 1982-83.

Female and Minority Undergraduates Earn Less Than Others

Among full-time undergraduate students who worked, women and minorities earned lower hourly wages than the average, according to a study conducted for the National Center for Education Statistics.

Almost four-fifths of all undergraduates worked—those who were financially independent of their parents for 1,400 hours a year, about twice as much as those who were dependent. These independent students also had higher hourly wages.

Among dependent students, the average hourly wages were $2.32 for men, $1.99 for women, $1.89 for Hispanics, and $1.54 for Blacks. Hispanic students worked more than 1,000 hours a year, much more than the average dependent student.

Among independent students, the average hourly wages were $2.81 for men, $2.44 for women, $2.10 for Hispanics, and $2.06 for Blacks.

Public Faith in Schools Increases

For the first time in seven years, the proportion of adults who think the public schools are doing a better-than-average job has increased, according to the latest Gallup Poll on the public schools. The public now has more confidence in the schools than in 1973.

Only the churches inspire greater confidence than the schools, which led the courts, big business, government, and labor unions.

As in the last nine years, Poll respondents ranked discipline as the leading problem facing the schools. Parents of private school students were twice as likely as parents of public school children to consider discipline the greatest problem of public schools.

International Year of Disabled Persons Comes in 1981

The NEA is one of 220 organizations acting as partners of the U.S. Council for the International Year of Disabled Persons (IYDP), proclaimed by the United Nations. The Council is cooperating with the federal government's Interagency Committee for IYDP.

Thirty-five million Americans—1 of every 6—suffer from physical or mental disabilities. IYDP is designed to help them and their peers in other countries by improving opportunities for them in all areas of life and by improving treatment and rehabilitation for them. IYDP also is intended to reduce the incidence of disabilities through prevention of accident and disease.

Fourth Great American Smokeout Is Scheduled

Thursday, November 20, is the date of the fourth national Great American Smokeout, when the American Cancer Society (ACS) will ask smokers to go without cigarettes for a day. One to three days after last year's smokeout, says ACS, 2.3 million of the participants still weren't smoking. The cold-turkey method of quitting smoking is reported to be the most effective.

ACS estimates that smoking is a causal factor in some 325,000 premature deaths yearly.

Families with Children Suffer Housing Discrimination

Surveys on housing discrimination in Dallas, Los Angeles, Atlanta, and other areas suggest that large and increasing numbers of apartment complexes either prohibit children entirely or accept children only of certain ages or only in limited numbers, says the Children's Defense Fund.

The Annual Housing Survey of the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development indicates that in 1976, 2.3 million households were overcrowded and 11 million paid more than they could afford for housing. Vacancy rates for housing units with five or six rooms are dangerously low.

One effect of housing policies that discriminate against children is that patterns of school enrollment are disrupted, forcing the closing of some schools and overcrowding of others.

Religious Leaders Oppose School Prayer Bill

Religious leaders representing most Christians and Jews in the United States have declared that their churches and associations strongly oppose a proposed law denying the federal courts jurisdiction over school prayer controversies.

A representative of the National Council of Churches declared that no agency of the state should be entrusted with responsibility for the spiritual de-

elopment of children, which he termed e task of the family and the faith com-unity. Nine Baptist bodies with more an 27 million members were unani-ous in opposing the bill, according to speaker for their joint committee. A eaker for the United Methodist Board Church and Society described gov-rnment-sponsored prayer as a contra-ction in terms—prayer is voluntary, he aintained, or it is not prayer.

ternational Year of the Child ade Some Difference

The World Confederation of Organi-ions of the Teaching Profession ked member organizations what dif-ence the International Year of the ild (IYC) in 1979 had made. Some wers were that—

- Teachers and students had be-me more aware of children's rights, luding equality of opportunity.
- More people had become aware of needs of children. For example, in United States, every state affiliate of NEA and hundreds of local affiliates k part in IYC, informing some 150 ion people on this subject.
- Understanding and cooperation ong national organizations im-ved.
- Governments and other agencies ssessed existing programs and iden-d programs that need more money.
- The public became more aware of dren's needs as opposed to the e for armaments.

rijuana Use Now Begins Earlier

he most significant increase in mari-na use in the past year was among to 17-year-olds, says the National itute on Drug Abuse. Daily use ong high school seniors has nearly bled since 1975, rising from 5.8 per-t to 10.7 and 10.3 percent in 1978 1979 respectively.

Marijuana and Health, a report on the ge and effects of the drug, is avail-from the National Institute on Drug se, 5600 Fishers Lane, Rockville, 20857.

assinations of El Salvador chers Increase

1979, 31 teachers were assassi-d in El Salvador; in the first six ths of 1980, the toll was 55. The or teachers organization of El Sal-or recently reported these figures to nference of nine national teachers nizations and the World Confeder-n of Organizations of the Teaching ession (WCOTP). WCOTP had ap-ed often and without response to unta ruling El Salvador to protect teachers and seek out their assassins.

In their "Declaration of Managua," the assembled groups called on teachers organizations throughout the world to condemn the regime controlling El Salvador and work to deny it aid, to set up national committees of solidarity with the people of El Salvador, and to support Salvadorean exiles.

Women's Colleges Are Strong and Growing

In 1978-79, the nation's 117 women's colleges (in 26 states and the District of Columbia) enrolled 123,339 students, a gain of 19.8 percent since 1970, according to the Women's College Coalition.

Freshmen at women's colleges are nearly twice as likely as freshman women at all colleges and universities to plan to become doctors, lawyers, or Ph.D.'s or to plan majors in economics, biology, or chemistry. The population at women's colleges is more ethnically diverse than the female college population in general—11.2 percent rather than 9 percent Black, 2.2 rather than 1.1 percent Asian, and 1.8 rather than 1.0 percent Hispanic.

Women comprise 55 percent of the faculty members and 43 percent of the full professors at women's colleges, and only 25 percent of the faculty members and 11 percent of the full professors at all four-year postsecondary institutions.

College Costs Now Rise at Lower Rate

The percentage of increase in costs for resident students at four-year colleges is slightly less than last year, says the College Board's College Scholarship Service. Between 1978 and 1979, total costs for students at private four-year colleges rose 10.6 percent; in 1980, the cost rise was estimated to be 10.3 percent. Analogous figures for public institutions are 8.5 and 8.1 percent respectively.

Costs at public two-year institutions rose between 16 and 20 percent, probably because the local tax base, which provides much of the support for these institutions, has not been growing rapidly.

Interscholastic Athletics: Girls' Share Improves—Somewhat

The number of women and girls participating in competitive athletics has more than doubled since passage of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1971, according to a report of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. The proportion of females among interscholastic athletes has grown from less than 1 in 10 in 1971 to nearly 1 in 3 in 1978-79. Women's athletic programs still do not receive a comparable share of the athletic budget, however.

Most of the growth in the number of female athletes arises from an increase in the number of schools that offer basketball and track and field to girls; these two sports are the most widely available for boys. Of 29 interscholastic sports, however, 22 are less often available for girls than for boys.

For a copy of the report, *More Hurdles To Clear: Women and Girls in Competitive Athletics*, write to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Publications Warehouse, 621 N. Payne St., Alexandria, VA 22314.

Sodium Vapor Lamps May Disturb Vision

High pressure sodium vapor lamps in classrooms may disturb vision, according to the Bureau of Radiological Health, U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Teachers and students in Fort Worth, Texas, and Cheshire, Connecticut, reported glare, color distortion, headaches, and eye strain or pain within several months after schools installed the lamps. In both communities, the complaints have caused removal of the lights.

Although the available information does not establish that the lamps caused the symptoms, the installation of such lamps in other classrooms could easily result in the same teacher and student reactions, according to the Bureau investigators.

Children's Book Week Comes in November

With the slogan "Books Alive!" Children's Book Week will be celebrated November 17-23. The Children's Book Council has prepared several kinds of materials for use during the week, including a poster, a frieze, streamers, a bookmark, and a mobile.

For more information, write the Children's Book Council, Inc., 67 Irving Place, New York 10003, or call 212/254-2666.

NEA Teachers Visit British Counterparts

Last summer, the first exchange visit took place between members of the NEA and of its British counterpart, the National Union of Teachers. For two weeks, 46 U.S. teachers lived with teachers in Bath and Bristol, taking part in seminars, discussions, and excursions. The British host teachers are to visit their U.S. guests next summer.

Letters

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Ability Counts

A research writing contest on the subject of the problems and abilities of handicapped people is open to all high school juniors and seniors in participating states. Winners of the "Ability Counts" contest will receive prizes at both state and national levels.

To prepare their research reports, students will talk to disabled people, their teachers, and their families. They will also study the laws mandating education and a barrier-free environment for all people with handicaps.

If you wish to encourage your students to put their investigative and writing skills to work on this contest, address your request for complete information as follows: State Chairman, Governor's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, c/o State Capitol, Your State Capital.

—Juanita E. Campbell, *the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, DC.*

Nonpartisan Political Education

A Presidential Classroom for Young Americans is a week-long program for high school juniors and seniors designed to bring a cross-section of the nation's youth into contact with leading U.S. government policymakers. Selected students participate in nonpartisan, formal seminars that focus on the presidency, Congress, the judiciary, influential private-sector groups.

We are offering the 1981 program eight times: seven of them between January 24 and March 14, and one in July. The cost of $325 per student includes all expenses except round-trip transportation to and from Washington.

For further information, contact A Presidential Classroom for Young Americans, P.O. Box 19084, Washington, DC 20036.

—Angie B. Whitaker, *executive director, A Presidential Classroom for Young Americans.*

Saying Good Things About Teachers

Teachers by the thousands, more accustomed these days to criticism than to praise, well deserve the support given them by Phyllis Naylor in the September-October *Today's Education* ("Over the Dinner Table"). I venture to say that she has expressed the too often unexpressed feelings of many, many mothers and fathers.

How wonderful it would be if all parents whose children are fortunate enough to have teachers of the caliber described by this wise and warm author would *tell* those teachers that they understand their problems and are grateful for their contribution. How wonderful it would be if all teachers who aren't sure whether they measure up would resolve to earn such parent appreciation.

—Mildred Fenner Reid, *editor,* Today's Education, *1955-75.*

Phyllis Naylor, her subtitle to the contrary, did not surprise me. After 21 years of teaching, I can hardly be surprised that a former teacher, now an author and wife of a speech pathologist, would have two sons who have some good things to say about their Bethesda, Maryland, teachers.

The Naylors are an ideal American family: highly educated, literate, middle-class people who talk with their kids at the dinner table. For many of my colleagues, they are no more real than all those den mothers and carpool fathers who Ms. Naylor feels are "in awe" of teachers. If only the Naylors would prevail!

—Brooke Workman, *English teacher, West High School, Iowa City, Iowa.*

Thanks to Phyllis Naylor for "Over the Dinner Table." Despite the subtitle ("What Kids Really Say About Teachers . . . You May Be Pleasantly Surprised"), I was not surprised. Rather, I was gratified, encouraged, thankful.

We who teach know that some of our students, like the Naylor boys, see us as human beings and appreciate our efforts. For them, we are grateful.

We also know that some of our students' parents—the "Ms. Naylors" out there—are cheering us on, understanding our human frailties, applauding our ofttimes infinitesimal gains. Such parents usually express their appreciation quietly but effectively by volunteering to drive on field trips, help with foreign language week festivities, assist in the library. In many such important ways, they express their support. These subtle cheerleaders help offset the grumbling and accusatory parents who are more vocal.

I wish that articles such as Ms. Naylor's could be published not only in magazines for teachers but also in the secular press. There, they could help balance the trendy but negative statements that are often published on such topics as teacher accountability and teacher strikes. The general public needs to be reminded that schools merely reflect the society in which they exist.

—Patricia G. Lamb, *English and journalism teacher, Campbell High School, Smyrna, Georgia.*

Disabled Educators Sought

If you are (or know of) a disabled educator, please help.

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) seeks information from disabled persons who are teachers, school administrators, counselors, teacher aides, or trainees in education. AACTE also wants to locate any disabled persons who have been prevented from or restricted in obtaining training or employment in education because of their disabilities.

The information will be used in a report on the barriers that disabled educators face. The report, to be published along with a resource directory, will offer strategies to open up opportunities in education for people with disabilities.

If you or someone you know would like to be part of the project, send name and address to AACTE/HEATH Project, Suite 610, One Dupont Circle, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

—Diane Merchant, *Co-Director, Section 504 and Teacher Education, AACTE, Washington.*

Japanese Education

During an NEA study tour of Japan a year ago, I developed ambivalent feelings about that nation's system of education. Jean Johnston's comprehensive article, "Education in Japan" (September-October), expresses some of the contradictions that beset an observer. For example, she reports the complaint that Japanese students "can't write a simple report," and yet she concludes that preuniversity education in Japan is of "remarkably high quality"!

My feelings are that the Japanese don't get full value for the amount of time students spend in school; the excellent motivation of most students; and the amazing dedication of hard-working teachers, our professional brothers and sisters.

n my opinion, Japanese students, sed by "Education Moms" to want to cel in school, would eagerly respond the creative teaching techniques achers could use if the curriculum ren't so rigidly controlled. As Janese education is now organized, the nistry of Education prescribes a curulum that is taught in rote manner, k-step, from Hokkaido to Kyushu. hat Japanese students can regurgie volumes of facts certainly does not ke up for their lack of ability to "orize thoughts logically, understand ssue, or find a creative solution to a blem."

apan's internationally recognized hnological prowess is, for the most t, the result not of education in their ools or universities but of their very industry-run, on-the-job training bined with their adherence to the fucian work ethic.

—Ruth Kramer, *social studies teach-Unami Junior High School, Chalfont, nsylvania.*

ean Johnston proves herself a keen perceptive observer in her provocaarticle on Japan.

ow correct she is to point out that anese education achieves its ngth and success through the coopive efforts of students, teachers, parents. The importance of the par involvement cannot be overemsized.

was surprised, however, by John-'s statement that Japanese stus are neither "hardworking nor olarly" even though they spend long rs preparing for entrance examina-. Could it be that a Western stan- is being applied to a Japanese sit-on?

kewise, an East-West difference in eria may account for the incongruity nston noticed between the universiystems of the two societies. In the t, the university encourages critical king and individual achievement, reas in Japan, the university allows ents to merge more completely with peer group, to develop those assoons that will be of lifelong impore to them in business.

oth systems of university education, efore, manage in their respective s to achieve their common goal: to pare youth to function as effective nbers of their society.

hile it is true that Japanese culture become Westernized in many ways, stitutions need not be measured by tern standards.

Betty Bullard, *Director of Educa-The Asia Society, New York.*

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Program Design and Development for Gifted and Talented Students. Frederick B. Tuttle, Jr., and Laurence A. Becker. 128 pp. 1980. (Z-0733-6-OF) $6.95.

What Research Says to the Teacher: Gifted and Talented Students. Frederick B. Tuttle, Jr. 32 pp. 1979. (Z-0743-3-OF) $1.

Monographs

The following present strategies for identifying and teaching gifted and talented students in the areas specified.

Teaching the Gifted and Talented: In the Elementary Classroom. Mary J. Heimberger. 80 pp. 1980. (Z-0735-2-OF) $4.75.

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Teacher Opinion Poll

Job Satisfaction

One-third (35 percent) of all pub school teachers are dissatisfi with their current jobs as teachers. Tw fifths (41 percent) would probably n become teachers if they could go ba to their college days and start ov again. Furthermore, 1 teacher in 10 w leave teaching as soon as possible wh another 2 teachers in 10 are undecid how long they will remain in teaching

These statistics are from the NE Nationwide Teacher Opinion Poll com pleted in May 1980. A reliable sample 1,738 public school teachers across t United States responded to the surve

A higher percentage of men teache (39 percent) than women teachers (3 percent) are dissatisfied with their job About half of the men teachers (52 pe cent) and more than one-third of th women teachers (36 percent) think the would not become teachers if the could start over again.

Secondary teachers are a little mo likely than elementary teachers to b dissatisfied with their jobs, to plan t leave teaching as soon as possible, an to think they would not become teach ers if they could start over again.

Those teachers who teach in cities and in school systems with over 25,000 students are a little more likely than oth er teachers to be dissatisfied with thei jobs and to plan to leave teaching a soon as possible.

A majority of poll respondents fee the following have had a *negative* effect on their job satisfaction:

- Public attitudes toward schools
- Media treatment of education
- Student attitudes toward learning
- Salary.

About half feel the following have had a *negative* effect:

- Status of teachers in community
- Student behavior.

Less than half feel the following have had a *negative* effect:

- Relationships with other teachers
- Intangible rewards from teaching
- Job security
- Relationships with parents of students
- Physical facilities/environment
- Opportunities for professional growth
- Class sizes.

—NEA Research.

The Teacher and the Law

The *Yeshiva* Decision

In its opinion in *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Yeshiva*, delivered in February 1980, the U.S. Supreme Court struck a blow against faculty collective bargaining in higher education. Equally or more damaging than the decision itself, however, may be the rumors, fears, and misinterpretations it generated. Consequently, it is as important to discuss what the decision did not do and say as it is to discuss what it did.

These are the issues on which the *Yeshiva* decision did *not* lay down any rule:

- The rights of most college faculty to unionize
- The rights of faculty in private institutions generally to engage in collective bargaining
- The rights of higher education faculty generally to engage in collective bargaining
- The rights of faculty in public higher education to engage in collective bargaining.

What the 5-to-4 decision did say was that the significant role faculty played in decision making at Yeshiva, a private university in New York City, made the faculty there "managerial" and removed it from coverage under the National Labor Relations Act (NLRA). The NLRA permits private-sector employees to select a bargaining agent and engage in collective bargaining.

According to the majority opinion, written by Justice Lewis F. Powell, Jr., and concurred in by Chief Justice Warren Burger and Justices Potter Stewart, William H. Rehnquist, and John Paul Stevens, III:

> The controlling consideration in this case is that the faculty of Yeshiva University exercises authority which in any other context unquestionably would be managerial. Their authority in academic matters is absolute . . . . To the extent the industrial analogy applies, the faculty determines within each school the product to be produced, the terms upon which it will be offered, and the customers who will be served.

The authority to which the decision refers is the faculty's influence on curriculum; grading, admission, and graduation standards; and course scheduling, as well as its ability to make recommendations on hiring, promotion, and tenure. The Court ruled that Yeshiva faculty are excluded from NLRA coverage because they are "aligned with management while participating in academic governance."

In a strong dissent, Justice William J. Brennan, Jr., joined by Justices Byron R. White, Thurgood Marshall, and Harry A. Blackmun, argued—

> What the Court fails to apprehend—is that whatever influence the faculty wields in university decision making is attributable solely to its collective expertise as professional educators, and not to any managerial or supervisory prerogatives . . . . The University always retains the ultimate decision-making authority . . . and the administration gives what weight and import to the faculty's collective judgment as it chooses and deems consistent with its perception of the institution's needs and objectives.

Brennan disputed the majority's theory that collective bargaining is impermissible because the interests of the administration and the faculty are the same:

> The mere coincidence of interests on many issues has never been thought to abrogate the right to collective bargaining on those topics as to which that coincidence is absent. Ultimately, the performance of an employee's duties will always further the interests of the employer, for in no institution do the interests of labor and management totally diverge.

The National Labor Relations Board (NLRB), the federal agency that administers the NLRA, had ordered Yeshiva University to bargain collectively with its faculty organization. Subsequently, the NLRB asked the U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit to have its order enforced. The court, however, refused to enforce the order. The NLRB had argued, among other things, that the faculty was not aligned with management because it exercised "independent professional judgment" while participating in academic governance.

The Supreme Court, upholding the Second Circuit's opinion, reasoned that the "faculty's professional interests as applied to governance at a university like Yeshiva cannot be separated from those of the institution." This situation, the High Court majority concluded, would lead to the "problem of divided loyalty," which the National Labor Relations Act is intended to prevent. In an *amicus curiae* brief filed with the Supreme Court, the NEA had argued that since the faculty was not accountable to the administration for its governance decisions, the "damage of divided loyalty [did] not come into play."

Despite the loss of faculty rights it brought about, the *Yeshiva* decision does not directly affect most college faculty. The NLRA does not cover public employees, and thus the ruling does not affect their collective bargaining status. Also, the decision responded to the decision-making mechanism of a specific faculty and did not therefore address directly faculty at any school other than Yeshiva.

NEA General Counsel Robert H. Chanin warned against reading too much into the decision. According to Chanin, while the decision is "unfortunate," an even greater concern is "that it will be misapplied and become a vehicle by means of which recalcitrant colleges and universities will seek to avoid their obligation to bargain in contexts to which the decision has no application."

Chanin made the following observations:

- The *Yeshiva* decision has direct relevance only to private colleges and universities, since they are the ones covered by the NLRA. And even in the private sector, the decision should apply to few, if any, junior colleges, and only to those four-year institutions that have a well-developed system of "shared authority."
- The ruling did not prohibit any faculty from joining labor unions. Nor did it hold that a college or university may not engage in collective bargaining if it chooses to do so. The issue was whether Yeshiva University was *required* to engage in collective bargaining with its faculty organization.
- The decision made clear that each case regarding the bargaining rights of faculty must be judged on its own facts.

Thus, a headline such as the one in the *New York Times* that claimed "End of Unionization at Colleges Is Seen" and rumors of loss of collective bargaining rights at all private schools are best responded to in a manner akin to Mark Twain's famous cable to the Associated Press: "The reports of my death are greatly exaggerated."

—Barbara Stein, *NEA Teacher Rights.*

Research Clues

Do children learn more from experiences they themselves choose or from direct instruction?

In this study, direct instruction increased learning more than did experiences the students themselves chose. The children learned most, however, when the teacher used a combination: free-choice experiences preceded by lecture and demonstration that provided introductory information relevant to the experiences.

Researchers randomly divided 60 sixth grade students into three groups of 20 each. The subject to be studied was science—specifically, how to criticize experiments and design controlled experiments. One group of students was taught both through lectures and demonstrations and through free-choice experiences for the entire six weeks of the study. A second group learned through free-choice experiences for the first three weeks and through lectures and demonstrations for the second three. The third group learned first through lectures and demonstrations and later through free-choice experiences. Researchers used a pretest and three posttests to measure students' abilities to criticize experiments and to design controlled experiments.

The most effective instructional method overall was the third—lectures and demonstrations followed by free-choice experiences. In all cases, however, direct instruction alone was more effective than free-choice activities alone.

What the results tell teachers is that if you're using only one method, direct instruction is the best choice, but if you can set up a program that uses direct instruction followed by free-choice experience, your students will profit even more.

See Marcia C. Linn. "Free-Choice Experiences: How Do They Help Students Learn?" *Science Education* 64: 237-48; No. 2, 1980.

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Assistant Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

Do teachers have a greater number of positive interactions with students they consider "bright" than with those they consider "dull"?

Yes, contend the authors of this study. The researchers observed all 300 of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students in one elementary school to record their positive, negative, and neutral interactions with their 12 teachers. The researchers observed each student with his or her teacher for four hours toward the end of the school year, a time when teachers are likely to know their students well.

After the observations, the researchers asked the teachers to rate all their students for a variety of characteristics, including "brightness" and "dullness." The researchers then analyzed the interactions with teachers of 96 of the students—the two "brightest" boys, "brightest" girls, "dullest" boys, and "dullest" girls that each teacher named.

The study has one serious problem, however: it totally confounds the selection and measurement criteria. The researchers, for example, classified "providing a correct answer" as one of their six positive interactions. At the same time, teachers would probably consider providing correct answers a criterion of "brightness." Thus, a single characteristic—providing many right answers—would cause a student both to be considered bright and to have many positive interactions. To complicate matters further, the researchers classified "receiving praise or affirmation for a correct answer" as a positive interaction. Again, students selected by teachers as "brightest" would automatically be those who met this condition.

Thus the researchers virtually ask teachers to identify which of their students receive the most positive interactions, then conduct observational measurements to determine which students receive the most positive interactions.

This study is one of numerous studies, beginning with Rosenthal and Jacobsen's *Pygmalion in the Classroom* (1968), that have attempted to link teacher expectations, teacher behavior, student characteristics, and student achievement. The general hypothesis still sounds plausible: If teachers expect a student to achieve, the student will indeed achieve. Researchers have not, however, been able to substantiate it.

See Stephen W. Armstrong, Bob A gozzine, and Lee Sherry. "Perceive Brightness and Classroom Interac tions." *Educational Research Quarter* 4: 54-60; Winter 1979.

What are gifted students reall like?

They're well-adjusted to academ endeavors and pretty much like othe students in the activities they unde take, according to this extensive stud of 1,593 tenth graders from 46 hig schools. All the students were in the state's program of education for th gifted: They had placed among the top percent of the students at their grad level, and school psychologists ha identified them as gifted.

The study found that these student are happy; have high self-concepts, es pecially concerning academic abiliti feel that they're generally in control o their own lives; and have positive att tudes toward school, their teachers and learning.

Generally, these gifted students pla to attend college, want to get a master degree, are oriented toward achieve ment in intellectual areas, and plan t pursue managerial or professional ca reers. They engage in a balanced set o activities: studying, engaging in socia contact, reading, watching television working around the house, and in some cases being employed.

Two unexpected findings arose. First these students reported that they didn consider themselves especially talented and that they had received few awards or other tokens of recognition. The author attributes this finding to modes ty. Second, 67 percent of these stu dents indicated that they were unpopu lar or very unpopular. Since some of the same students also report that they're happy, however, the author feels that they don't require peer approval to happiness but gain it through a sense o accomplishment and success.

See Romeria Tidwell. "A Psycho Educational Profile of 1,593 Gifted High School Students." *Gifted Child Quar terly* 24: 63-68; Spring 1980.

What are typical characteristics of Black students who drop out of school?

This comparison of the Black drop

outs to the Black nondropouts in a middle-sized city school system found that two characteristics contributed heavily to dropping out of school: intelligence and little drive for achievement. Black students who drop out of school, in general, do not value school achievement but have higher intelligence than Blacks who don't drop out.

On the basis of interviews with dropouts, the authors conclude that these former students feel that their decision to leave school was realistic and intelligent given their low socioeconomic status, problems caused by racial discrimination, and lack of opportunity.

Teachers should be aware that Blacks who drop out are doing so not because of inability to learn or do the work (achievement test scores of dropouts were little different from those of nondropouts). Students need encouragement and help in making the connection between staying in school and later success in life.

See Ronald L. Richardson and S. Craig Geback. "Black Dropouts: A Study of Significant Factors Contributing to a Black Student's Decision." *Urban Education* 14: 489-95; January 1980.

Are we hurting students by not allowing them to know failure?

Very likely, argues this article. School practices such as programmed instruction, inflated grades, and mastery learning are designed to maximize success for every student. They may be lowering students' levels of anxiety, frustration, and perseverance too far, however. If so, these practices will produce students who can't tolerate imperfect performance, avoid taking risks, and retreat when they encounter failure.

The article reviews research on five psychological theories about the effects of failure on human behavior. The research supports the idea that some failure can be beneficial to later performance. In essence, the author's point of view is that school practices that create excessive failure are detrimental, but practices that create excessive success by eliminating almost all chances of failure also are detrimental.

See Margaret M. Clifford. "Effects of Failure: Alternative Explanations and Possible Implications." *Educational Psychologist* 14: 44-52; 1979.

Do multiage classrooms improve student achievement and self-concept?

The students in this study showed no increase or decrease in achievement, but did increase in one of the six self-concept factors measured—happiness and satisfaction.

The sample consisted of 135 students in 4 multiage classrooms in three suburban elementary schools.

The classrooms included groups of six- and seven-; eight- and nine-; nine- and 10-; and eight-, nine-, and 10-year-olds. The achievement and self-concept of these children were compared to those of a control group of 231 children in 5 single-age classrooms.

Little research has been conducted on the effects of multiage classrooms. Although this study indicates possible positive benefits, it should not, in itself, be used to justify the creation of such classrooms.

See Joyce Way. "The Effects of Multiage Grouping on Verbal Interaction, Achievement, and Self-Concept." Cortland, N.Y.: Institute for Experimentation in Teacher Education, State University of New York at Cortland, February 1980. 27 pp. □

"Our tests show that 32 percent of Group A equalled what 27 percent of Group C did last year before we applied plan B to 50 percent of the group in sequence III. Is that good or bad?"

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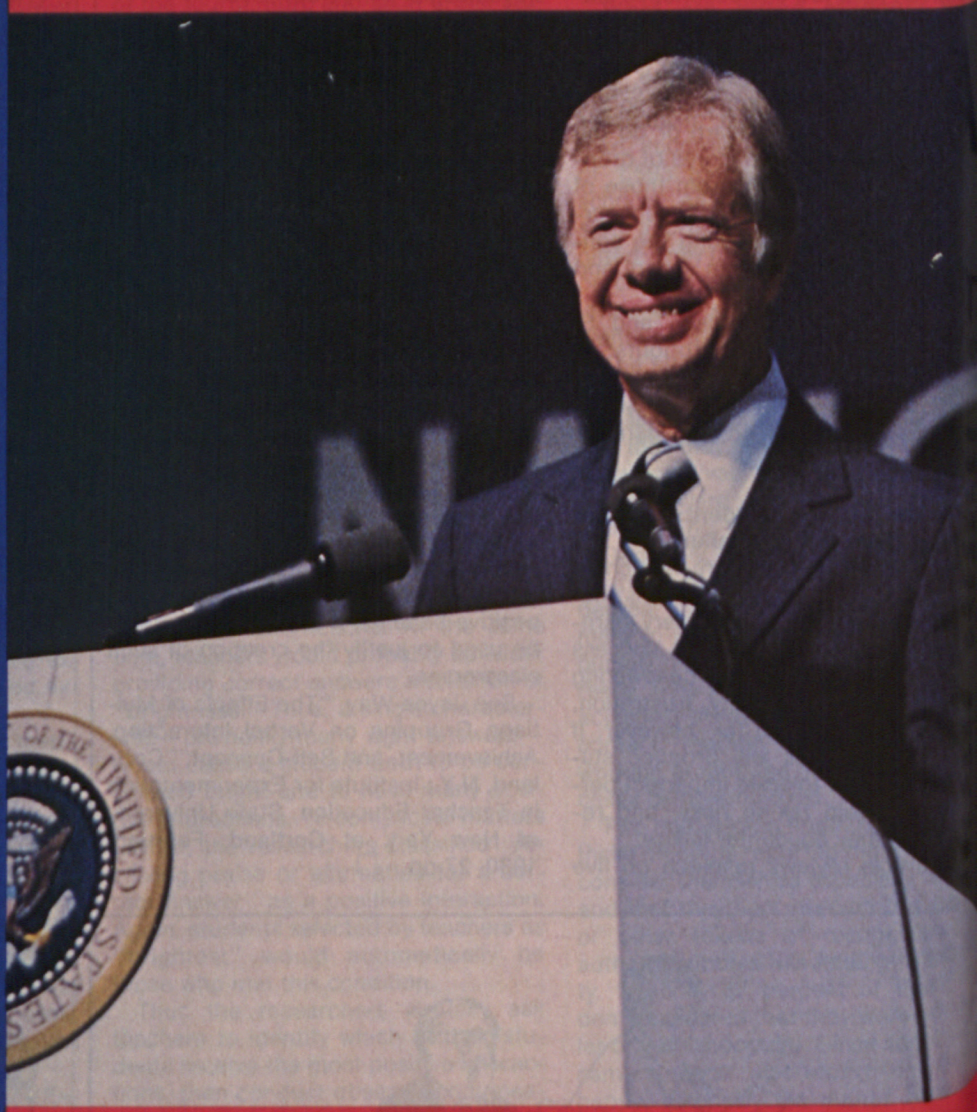


MONDALE

A Clear-Cut Choice

This year's presidential election will have a tremendous impact on our country throughout the rest of this century. Whoever is elected will have enormous impact on all facets of American life—including our education system.

Teachers recognize this fact. They also recognize that one candidate for President of the United States in 1980 has served our democracy and our education system well: That candidate is Jimmy Carter. Therefore, the 1980 NEA Representative Assembly (RA) endorsed the reelection of President Carter. This action of NEA's elected representatives reflects their opinion that giving President Carter and Vice-President Mondale another term to continue to work for education and human needs is important to America.

There are clear and crucial differences between the stands of the two major party presidential candidates and their party platforms. A review of those differences will, I believe, reveal the reasons why the NEA Representative Assembly voted to endorse President Carter.

By **WILLARD McGUIRE**
President, NEA.

True to his 1976 commitment, President Carter made education a top national priority. He has proclaimed his partnership with teachers and NEA.

He has responded positively to the needs and concerns of America's teachers, because he considers teachers to be among the most important resources of our country. Not only has he spoken out for education and teachers, he has also included teachers in matters of state and national importance, including conferences, international meetings, and White House events.

Together the President and teachers have accomplished a great deal since January 1977. Together with congressional friends of education, we have—

- Dramatically increased federal support for education.
- Brought about a separate Department of Education (ED) that brings together education programs that were previously scattered among various departments. (Besides cutting through layers of bureaucracy and saving millions of hours of paperwork, the new Department increases the visibility of education and enhances its position among the nation's highest priorities.)

• Defeated attempts to enact tuition tax credits, a scheme that would divert to private schools money desperately needed by the public schools.

Our work, however, is not complete. Some of our goals have not yet been achieved. Together—in the next four years—the President and teachers will continue to work toward—

• Establishment of collective bargaining rights for teachers and other public employees.

• Ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment.

• Establishment of a system of health insurance that would, for the first time, guarantee to all Americans the availability of basic medical services.

In contrast, former California Governor Ronald Reagan takes the opposite position on nearly every issue noted above. Reagan and his Republican platform oppose—

• Even the moderate level of federal support for education that exists today.

• The continued existence of the Department of Education (though Reagan has not said what he would do with all the programs that ED administers).

• Collective bargaining rights for teachers and other public employees.

• The Equal Rights Amendment.

• A national program of health insurance for all Americans. The Republican position is that health care is fine as it is today although hospital administrators should try to hold down costs—even though this approach has failed in the past, as demonstrated by rising health costs.

Moreover, Reagan and his platform support—

• Tuition tax credits to aid private schools, despite the disastrous effects tax credits could have on the public school system.

• The politicization of the judiciary: appointment at all levels of the judiciary of only those individuals who agree with the GOP position against abortion.

• The Kemp-Roth 30 percent tax-cut proposal, which would be far more beneficial to wealthy citizens than to the majority of Americans. If put into effect, Kemp-Roth would drastically reduce the funds that today support the nation's programs for human needs. These are the programs through which our government satisfies its responsibility to protect the right of all Americans to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

• Increases in military spending well above current levels.

A massive increase in military spending concurrent with a 30 percent reduction in taxes would obviously cripple the funding of remaining programs. At the same time, Reagan says, he would also balance the budget—an action that would require still more cuts in vital government pr grams.

Implementing these fiscal proposals would necessi hamstringing programs that are vital to the health welfare of Americans. Many, perhaps most, of the servi Americans receive from our government today would impaired.

In his acceptance speech at the Republican conventio Detroit, Governor Reagan recalled that President Fran Delano Roosevelt had proposed cutting the size of the eral government when he first campaigned for the pr dency. Voters should remember, however, that durin period of worldwide economic depression and uncertai President Roosevelt depended on key government pr grams to help the people; he did not destroy governm services and depend on business alone to deal with nation's economic problems—some of the most serious nation ever experienced.

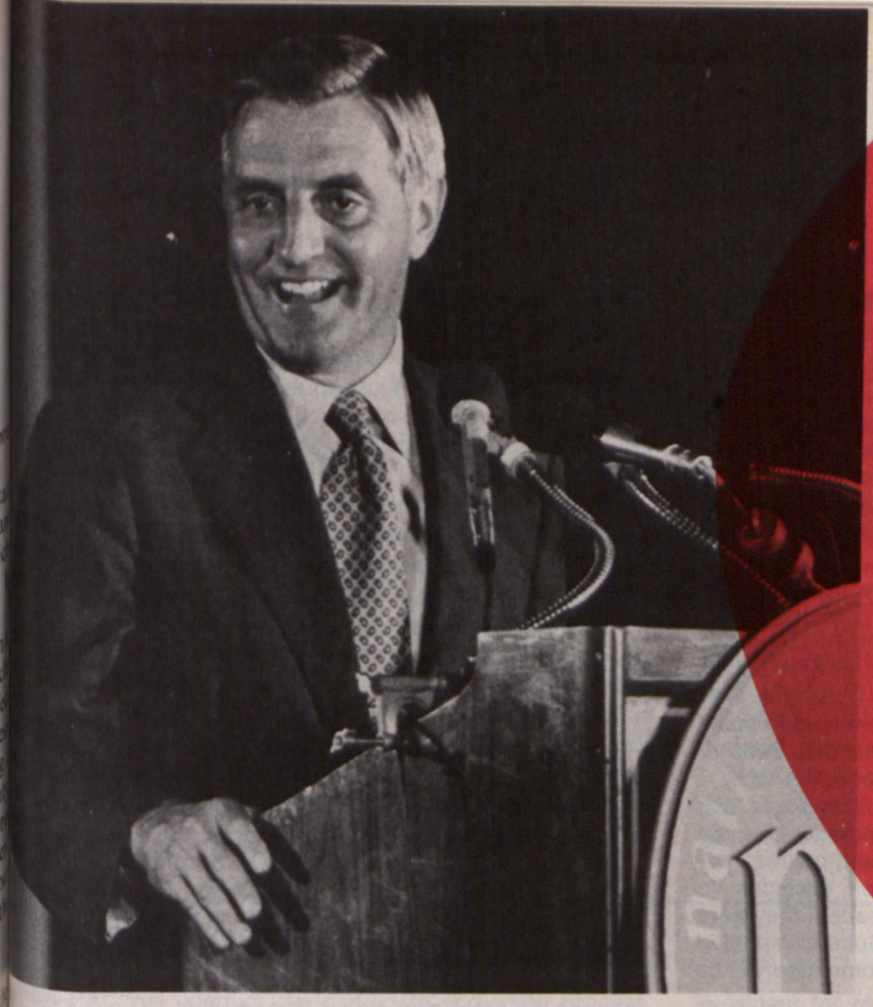
Comparing the Carter record and platform with Reagan record and platform confirms the wisdom of choice made by the delegates to the 1980 NEA Repres tative Assembly. But some have asked why NEA endor a presidential candidate, and if education is really important national issue.

The answer to both questions is that education must of top national importance. A democracy cannot long s vive without an educated citizenry. Yet one of the presid tial candidates would channel badly needed funds for e cation to serve the desires of the few at the expense of needs of the many. Such an action would cripple nation's education system, a system that has served country well for many years.

The teaching profession must protect our free pub schools and prevent attacks on their fiscal support. Tea ing is more than our job; it is our profession. Promot education as a top national priority through our wor actions, and votes is an obligation for us.

Deciding which presidential candidate to vote requires a rational judgment based upon a deliber weighing of alternatives. In the present case, the choic clear. The major candidates differ sharply on most of key issues our country faces. Nowhere is that differen clearer or more critical than in the area of education. Th area is our area of responsibility.

Accordingly, I believe it is vital that every teacher in th nation participate in the effort to reelect President Jimm Carter and Vice-President Walter Mondale. I believe the reelection is of crucial importance to education and to o country. □



MAKING THE DEMOCRATIC PROCESS WORK:

Teachers Unite To Reelect Carter-Mondale

November 4 will be the climax of a year of intense political activity by NEA members in every section of the ation. Over the past months, Association members have een engaged in the process of nominating and electing the ext President and Vice-President of the United States. In his year's presidential election contest, as in 1976, NEA as endorsed President Jimmy Carter and Vice-President Walter Mondale.

The NEA method of presidential endorsement was initiated by direction of the NEA Representative Assembly in 974. It was designed to provide a procedure whereby ssociation political involvement could be extended into he critical area of choosing a President and Vice-President f the United States.

This is how it has worked for the 1980 presidential ection. More than a year ago, exercising an option in

GOP Blocks Teacher Participation

Twenty-four percent of NEA's members are Republicans. (Forty percent are Democrats; 35 percent claim affiliation with no party.) This year, a number of factors prevented widespread participation of teachers in the Republican Party's selection of a presidential candidate. Although many of those teachers tried just as hard as their colleagues who are Democrats to become involved in the processes of their party, they failed largely for two reasons:

- Candidate Reagan's early and decisive defeat of his opponents for the GOP nomination in effect stranded many Republican teachers who had hoped to become delegates to the Detroit Convention through their support for GOP candidates who held positions more favorable to education than Reagan's. By the time delegate elections were held in many states, the teachers' candidates—people like U.S. Senator Howard Baker of Tennessee—were no longer in the race.
- Members of the right wing of the Republican Party, riding the popularity of their presidential candidate, Ronald Reagan, organized the GOP early and well and gained control over the Republican Convention in Detroit, Michigan.

Not only were the views of teachers not heeded, they were not even heard. NEA President Willard McGuire was denied an opportunity to address the Platform Committee of the GOP.

One teacher from New York reported that he was denied delegate status when the local Republican leadership in his area drew up a slate that included the names of only the top 10 financial contributors to the GOP over the last four years. The factors that closed out that teacher worked also to exclude the disadvantaged, minorities, women, and those of moderate means and views. The median annual income for a GOP delegate in 1980 was $47,000. Fewer than 1 in 3 were women. Fewer than 2 percent were Black. Fewer than 2 in 100 had incomes of less than $12,000; and fewer than 1 in 5 described themselves as "moderate to liberal" in political philosophy. Teachers were obviously not the only people shut out in Detroit.

NEA's Multi-Option Presidential Endorsement System (see the box accompanying this article), the NEA Political Action Committee (NEA-PAC) recommended that the Association support President Jimmy Carter in the 1980 presidential primaries. The NEA Board of Directors voted that support by an overwhelming margin—118 to 4.

Under the endorsement procedure, individual state affiliates must also concur in an endorsement before NEA support can be implemented in a given state. Forty-nine of NEA's state-level affiliates concurred in NEA's support for Carter. As a result, NEA and its members and affiliates played a key role in Carter's nomination. In the early contests in Florida and Iowa, for example, teachers turned out by the thousands to support the President.

As the political season swept onward, a pattern emerged. Over and over again, Association members supported President Carter, and consequently, his delegate count swelled toward the 1,666 needed for nomination at the Democratic Party Convention.

Teachers were elected in record numbers as delegate and alternates to that Convention. The overwhelmi majority of them—414 of the 464—were Carter backe Their activity helped keep teachers and education issues the spotlight throughout the long, hot political summer 1980.

On July 3, President Carter traveled to Los Angeles address the NEA Representative Assembly (RA). T President reviewed the achievements of his Administrati that were realized as a result of its partnership with NE he pointed to, among other successes, the establishment the Cabinet-level Department of Education and increase federal funding for education. In addition, he stressed t mutual goals that he and NEA must still work towar including ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment.

Then on July 4, the 7,500 delegates to the RA voted in secret ballot by more than 3 to 1 to endorse Presid Carter for reelection.

In August, teachers again played leading roles in t political process—this time at the Democratic Conventio in New York City. The nation watched on television scores of teachers translated their concerns for the natio and its future into participation in the most important co clave of the nation's largest political party.

NEA members served in key positions at the Democrati Convention:

- Cordell Affeldt of Indiana, Judy English of Colorad Elaine Hoffstetter and Mary Esther Vanschure of Ne York, and Wally Young of Delaware served on the Rul Committee.
- Barbara Roberts Mason of Michigan served as a mem ber of the 15-person Drafting Subcommittee of the Pla form Committee, and Alice McDonald of Kentucky chaired the Human Needs Section of the full Committee— the section that concerned itself with education and othe human needs issues.

Other Association members on the Platform Committe were Bill Potter of Alaska, Inola Henry and Billie Master of California, Vinnie Lefredo of Connecticut, Jim Baker o Kentucky, Mary Murphy of Massachusetts, Marvin Cous ins of Tennessee, Judith Lonnquist of Washington, an Maurice Andrews of Wisconsin.

In addition, two Association members were elected chairs of their state delegations; two more were elected vic chairpersons of their delegations. Chet Blaylock of Mon tana and Ronn Robinson of Washington were elected state chairpersons; and Elaine Marks of South Carolina and Rosalie Spaulding of Maine, vice-chairs. Unfortunately, Chet Blaylock became ill on the drive to New York City and had to watch the proceedings from a hospital in Sioux City, Iowa.

A number of states had sizable numbers of NEA mem bers in their delegations: California, 35; Washington, 25; Oklahoma, 24; Texas, 22; Illinois, 20; Michigan, 18; South Carolina, 17; Virginia, 16; Florida and Tennessee, 15 each.

Alabama and Georgia, 14 each; Iowa, 13; Kentucky, 11.

In New York, teachers made their presence felt. Some examples of their activities include—

- The pro-ERA demonstration they led the first night of the convention.
- Speeches from the podium by five NEA members on rules and platform issues.
- NEA Executive Director Terry Herndon's introduction of Vice-President Mondale for his acceptance speech on the last night of the convention. By giving the honor of making this introduction to an NEA leader, the President and Vice-President of the United States acknowledged the Association's importance to their candidacies, their Party, and the people of this nation.

Since the two national party conventions (see the accompanying box for information on teacher involvement in the Republican Convention), teachers have concentrated their efforts on the reelection of President Carter and Vice-President Mondale. Communicating with other members and their families about the accomplishments of the Carter-Mondale Administration and the marked contrasts between the Carter-Mondale record and that of Ronald Reagan has been a major activity. (For a review of some of the key positions on which they disagree, see the Editorial by NEA President Willard McGuire.)

On November 4, the election, no doubt, will be close. The participation of NEA's 1.8 million members and their family members may well make the difference in who wins. Teachers' votes will be crucial.

This has been a banner year for teacher involvement in politics. Teachers are making history as they practice what they teach. In so doing, they help keep our democratic processes vital and protect America's most important national treasures: its children and its future.

NEA's support of Jimmy Carter and Walter Mondale is one expression of teachers' commitment to excellence in education and democracy. □

Multi-Option Presidential Endorsement System*

NEA-PAC will conduct the candidate screening process and may make a recommendation to Representative Assembly delegates. NEA-PAC will develop such operating procedures and guidelines as it requires for participation in the NEA presidential endorsement process.

National, state, and local organization channels and resources will be used to provide members with information related to the endorsement process, presidential candidates, and issues and to assess member attitudes and opinions.

The president of NEA shall make any announcement of endorsement.

Option I

A vote by delegates to the NEA Representative Assembly will be the deciding factor in endorsement by NEA of a presidential candidate. The vote will be conducted by mail ballot sent to duly elected delegates within two weeks following the last major political party nominating convention.

Within one week after identification of all major political party nominees, NEA-PAC shall approve an official ballot which shall then be mailed to all duly elected delegates within one week after approval. NEA-PAC may also recommend a choice to the delegates at least three days prior to mailing of the official ballots.

If the official ballot contains three options (e.g., two candidates and "no endorsement"), a simple majority shall be required for endorsement.

If the official ballot contains two options, an endorsement of this type would require 58 percent of those voting.

Option II

The NEA Representative Assembly delegates may vote during the annual meeting to endorse an incumbent U.S. President for reelection. The method of voting shall be by secret ballot.

An endorsement of this type would require 58 percent of those voting.

Option III

The NEA Representative Assembly delegates may vote by mail ballot before the annual meeting to endorse an incumbent U.S. President for reelection.

An endorsement of this type would require 58 percent of those voting.

Option IV

The NEA Representative Assembly delegates may vote by mail ballot to endorse a presidential candidate before any major political party has conducted its national nominating convention.

An endorsement of this type would require 58 percent of those voting.

Option for Support in Primaries

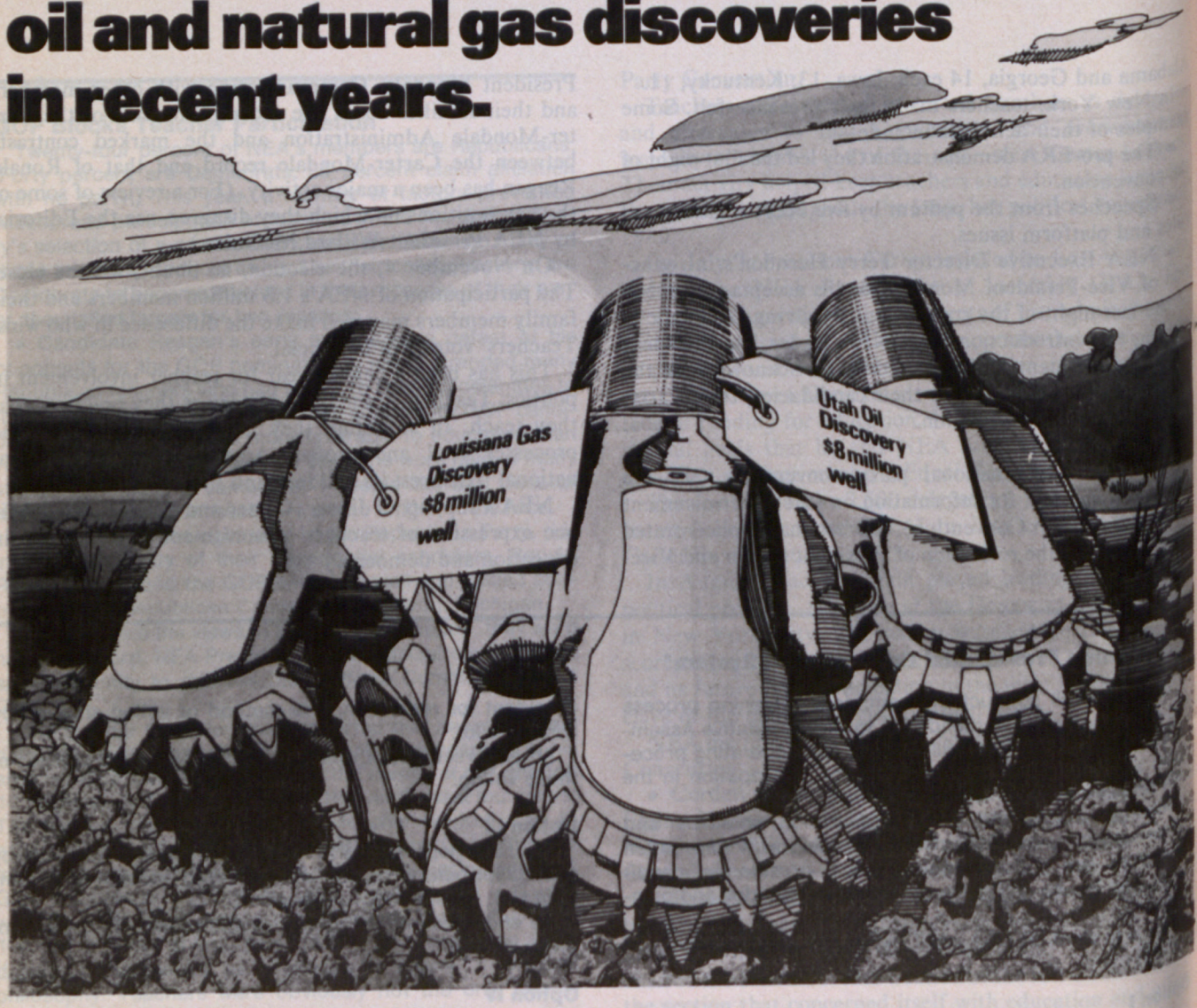
Upon the recommendation of NEA-PAC, the NEA Board of Directors may authorize support of presidential candidates prior to national party nominating conventions.

This support would require 58 percent majority of the NEA Board members voting. Concurrence of the appropriate body in an individual state must be obtained before this support is implemented in the state affected by the primary.

Any subsequent endorsement would require utilization of one or more of the options for endorsement.

*Adopted by the 1978 NEA Representative Assembly

How we're turning our earnings into some of the most important oil and natural gas discoveries in recent years.



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While the cost of drilling in both these areas is high, so is Amoco's success rate. Our exploration success rate in the Tuscaloosa Trend was 50%. That compares with a 32% industry average in the Trend. It's not likely that the future holds cost reductions for finding oil and natural gas. But Amoco's commitment is firm because we're sure searching for discoveries like these is the best way to spend our earnings. Finding new energy will help make America less dependent on foreign oil.

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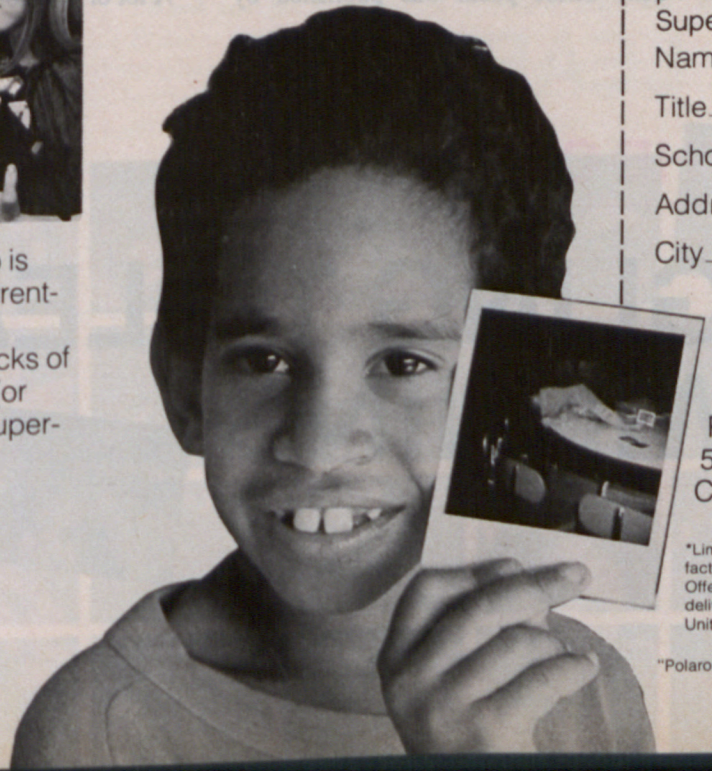

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I'm trying to expose my students in this urban high school to everything students are getting in suburban Montgomery County, Maryland, in the best schools money can buy. I want to be sure the education my students get is as good as that of students in more affluent communities.

We're accomplishing that. Urban education is working and will continue to work. All I can say to the public is, Just give us more money, please, and put more confidence in what we can do. The budget is the monster that is devouring urban schools.

If the ever-present possibility of losing our jobs were eliminated, we could teach with a free mind—but education in this city, maybe in the whole country, does not have enough budgetary priority.

For example, budget cuts in the District of Columbia are putting hundreds of teachers out of work. I myself have been teaching for eight years now, and I have been in four different yearbooks. What I want to know is, How many different schools will they send me to before I can say, "I know I'll be back here in September"?

We've got good teachers here in Washington; still, at any time a letter can come to any of us saying, "You're an excess person." Having your job abolished is never pleasant; for teachers who are supporting families and paying mortgages with their teaching salaries, the blow is even harder.

Not only teachers but students feel the pressure of budgetary problems. The students know that we have a winning football team but our coach has been riffed. They know that they raised thousands of dollars for new band uniforms but the band director has been riffed. They know that certain favorite teachers won't be there any more.

These overwhelming budgetary problems, however, don't make urban education impossible. Urban schools can succeed in spite of them if we put less emphasis on things that tear us apart. Urban education has two sides.

Last year, for example, a boy was shot inside our school. I know; I was the one who had to call the police. They kept asking me for a description of the assailant, and I kept saying, "Hey, a kid is shot, come here, give us some help!" That's one side of urban education.

But there is also another side. One of our graduates is going to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology this year on a scholarship. Our school has National Merit winners.

So if somebody asks me about urban teaching, I have a choice of saying, "A kid got shot; a teacher's coat was taken," or saying "We've got scholarship winners, a student who works in the office of the board of education, a student whose poem was published by Scholastic Press."

All teachers have a choice. We say, "Oh, I have to go to work toda or "What's going to be new at sch today? What's going to happen these kids today?"

Just a balanced attitude is enough: An urban teacher needs good sense of humor. For example, one of my English classes, the admin tration kept adding students. I wo get more books issued for the cl and another student would show For three weeks, the class increased leaps and bounds, until finally we five more students than we had boo

I just collected all those books I issued and said, "If every student ca have a book, no one will. We'll newspapers, older books, clippin We'll use our own experiences. W use dittoed materials, Xeroxed mat als, novels. We'll talk." In a situat like that, you have to laugh, because soon as you get one thing straig something else is going to happen.

The students are not the proble Some people believe that today's s dent is a new animal who comes school with dope and a knife. These kids are the same kids who h come into classrooms over the yea The economic and societal conditio have changed, but students and th requirements remain basically same. Their greatest needs are s attention and support.

A lot of the violence in the schools

By PAULETTE PRATTIS
English and American Literature Teacher, Eastern High School, Washington, DC.

TEACHING IN THE CITY

STRUGGLING TO LEARN —AND WINNING

reactive violence. It's a way of saying, 'Look at me; listen to me; don't cut the program where I'm excelling—don't take away my opportunity because of a budgetary problem." Kids don't accept cuts easily. If they're in a remedial reading program and it's abolished for budgetary reasons, they know how that will affect their lives. So I believe a lot of the violence is reactive.

Students don't get violent in my classes, and I think it's because they know they can work out problems in less explosive ways. For example, if a problem arises, we deal with it right that minute. We stop class. "OK, let's all get into this. What's the problem here?" We don't call in administrators or police. We deal with it right then, in the classroom, and when it's finished, it's finished.

The students know I'm available to them. We sit down and have lunch together and talk—not always as teacher and student, but sometimes as person to person. We share experiences. This way kids learn that teachers are real people—we get hurt, we can cry, we can laugh, we can be mean sometimes; students understand that.

When I was in high school, we were told a lot of things we later found to be unrealistic—about the education-structure and its objectives and what it was preparing us for. Maybe we were deluded, but we had dreams.

Today's urban children have had painful realities forced on them. They don't dream as much. They are survivors, prepared to deal with the challenges they must face.

Students don't come into the classroom out of a vacuum. They come with all kinds of experience. Life has made demands on them that have made them grow as individuals, in some ways we adults probably haven't even experienced.

The teacher has to know what more the students will need in order to deal with life when they get out of school. So the teacher and the student sit down and put their knowledge and experience together to devise programs.

One of the harshest realities that students face today is the difficulty of getting a job. The truth is, there are no real jobs out there, and I don't have an answer. All I can do is prepare students as well as I can. Besides preparing them academically, I try to teach them to appreciate the value of work and to do as well as they can at whatever job they can get. They need to learn that taking a job they don't like need not mean discarding their ultimate career goals.

I won't let them take refuge in self-pity—"Look at what's happening to me. I don't have a job."

OK, fine, that doesn't mean it's forever. I tell them, "Get what you can. Get your skills together now. Knock on some more doors. Don't wallow in discouragement."

I love my kids, but I don't pamper them. Students have sat in front of me and cried from hopelessness, and I have had to hold myself back from running over and hugging them. They have to see that although I care a great deal, after the tears comes the time to deal with the situation.

I try to make the English class valuable to my students. They come to room 209 to get some skills in English grammar and American literature, and they don't take much on faith. They'll ask, Why am I learning this? What benefit will this have?

A student asked me, "Why am I learning this kind of English? We don't talk like that."

I quoted Jesse Jackson: " 'When you're in the den of the lion, you speak lion'—and we're speaking lion now. I can appreciate you, but when you go for those job interviews, the employers will not hire you because you're cool. They want to see your skills."

I tell my students how Thoreau and Emerson and Poe thought, and they tell me how they think; the two aren't always so far apart.

Some of my colleagues believe we should merely stress the grammar and skip over some of the writers. For two reasons I expose my students to some writers those other teachers choose to omit.

First, even the child who is not talented academically can appreciate ideas about situations and feelings that all people share. When my classes study Thoreau or Poe, for example, we read aloud from their works and then talk about what we can learn from

their ideas and their survival skills.

When we talk about Richard Wright, we don't focus on the discrimination and the forces that opposed him. We focus on how he dealt with them, what he learned from them, and what he became because of them.

My second reason is purely pragmatic: If students take College Board or other exams, they have to be familiar with these writers.

Of course, I have a different idea about testing: I think it should be a tool of the teacher. But as long as my students have to take those standardized tests, they're going to know the answers. That's survival, too.

Besides teaching, another part of my job at Eastern High School is that of faculty sponsor of the Student Government Association. Every homeroom nominates two students to the Student Government, and they all meet together every week. But when some of the other students saw the things we were doing, they started to come by and say, "Hey, I'm not a representative, but I want to work."

We've got some good kids—not only at Eastern High School, but everywhere—and they're doing and producing good things.

The kids feel great about doing something positive. At Christmastime there was a big dinner at the Stadium Armory for the elderly. Our Student Government kids went down there to help dish up the food. We were all elbow deep in sweet potatoes. Even the toughest kids mellow when they find they have helped somebody else.

We've done the showy things like the pageants and homecoming, but we do other things also. We've gone on the radio. Once, for example, the students talked about violence in the schools; once they talked about budget cuts.

Then every time a school board meeting or a Black mayors' conference or anything else that's interesting takes place in the city, students are there to cover it. When Senator Ted Kennedy spoke at Shiloh Church, they were there. I have tried to expose the students to everything I think they should learn about what's going on in this city.

I don't always use the "brightest" students or the ones who make the school look good, either. I give each one a chance to go.

The kids I took to the Black mayors' conference, for example, were not academically superior. But they were the kids who needed to see that we have some outstanding Black mayors in this country, people who can tell them, "Look, this is where I came from, and this is what I'm dealing with, and you can do it too."

You've got to like teaching to do it now. You've got to like it because many of the circumstances are a lot more difficult now. Basically, however, teachers—like students—are the same as they've always been. I think each teacher, when he or she goes into that room with a certain number of students, feels the same sense of responsibility and challenge: "I will have some effect on the minds and the futures of these individuals sitting here in front of me."

Sometimes the rewards don't come immediately. A kid might come back two years after graduation and say, "You used to give me hell, but now I know what you were talking about." That makes you feel good.

I enjoy teaching at Eastern. I don't like the threat that my job might be taken away. But we have to deal with the actual situation, because we don't have time to think about what isn't happening. Kids are happening. □

[As of press time, the District of Columbia Board of Education was planning to eliminate roughly 750 teaching positions for the 1980-81 school year. A Board representative cautioned that more cuts might yet be made.—Ed.]

TEACHING IN THE CITY

WORKING HARD TO HELP CHILDREN LEARN

I don't believe the decline of urban schools was ever as serious as many people outside the schools thought. Perhaps much of the so-called decline was really just the idea of the media.

Even during the period of integration, when we had some disruption, most teachers continued working hard to help the children learn. Today, I believe our schools in Memphis are in good shape.

By RIO RITA JACKSON
Eighth Grade English Teacher, Cypress Junior High School, Memphis, Tennessee.

Three things seem to me to be important for good schools, whether they're urban, suburban, or rural: understanding from the community, professional development for teachers, and the cooperation of parents.

Part of the problem our schools have faced has been that people who are not in the schools have not really known what was going on. The smallest incident could get blown out of proportion and give the schools a bad name. Most of those who complained loudest about the public schools didn't even have children there.

One thing that has helped cut down on public ignorance is a project we started here last year called Adopt-a-School. Different major industries in Memphis agreed to work in pairs with the different public schools. Each pair decides what it wants to do. Some industries offer advice to students in their adopted schools about different kinds of jobs and provide ways for the schools to get their students out to work sites. Others help by supplementing school supplies.

As the project developed, one or another of the major industries adopted almost every school, and at the end of the first year, the schools and

industries in the program were very pleased with the results of their work together. Also—and this was very important—the program has given the community a better opportunity to see what is going on in the schools. The public no longer has to rely on second-hand information.

Although we don't have a teacher center in Memphis, we have found ways of working together for professional development. Teachers here want more information that will actually help in the classroom—something a little better than the usual kinds of in-service activities. Rather than go to the university and take a course, we carry on our own in-service activities in the schools.

Since we've found that teachers do a much better job of stimulating and helping other teachers than do those who are considered experts, we work with other teachers in our school. We share ideas and suggestions, and we develop materials that are specifically aimed toward the needs of our own students.

In our school, we have meetings across grade levels in each subject area. The first week of each six-week period, we discuss what our goals are for that period and develop objectives. Then at the end of that period, we bring our evaluation of how well we've met those goals, and we establish new ones. During this whole process, we share information with one another, and that's useful to all of us.

For instance, when all of the English teachers meet together, I find out what the seventh and ninth grade teachers are doing and what their goals are. Likewise, they find out what I'm doing with my eighth grade classes. Each of us gets a general idea of what the department is doing, and the continuity is smoother for the children.

Planning together is pleasant, too. Each of us proceeds according to her own personality and plans and experiences, but we find a good bit of enjoyment in sharing techniques and materials, and I think the children benefit quite a lot.

In any given school unit, of course, the principal determines how well and how much the teachers are able to work together. In our school we have school time for planning together. Until recently, however, a teacher would be expected to work all day and then stay after school to meet and plan.

Cooperation from parents has not improved as our community relations and teacher development have. In fact, the most obvious change I've seen in 15 years of teaching seems to come from a deterioration in parents' attitudes. Students are becoming more and more reluctant to learn. Although the attitudes of the children reflect many changes in society, they reflect the attitudes of the family as well.

At one time, when a teacher assigned work, students would do it and bring it in. Now it's very difficult to get students to study. Many of them don't care that much about grades, and some even seem to be determined not to learn. I'm determined that my students will learn, however, and they usually do.

I remember when parents used to impose conditions on their children: "You are going to do well in school, or you won't be allowed to do this or to have that." But talking with parents in recent years gives me the impression that they aren't exerting much control. It's very discouraging when a mother comes in for a conference and almost her first words are, "I can't do a thing with him." I have had parents tell me, "Sure, she does her homework. Every night after the late movie she starts."

I try to meet the parents of all my students during the first six weeks of school. I seldom succeed. I am especially determined, however, to meet the parents of those students who seem to need a bit more help than I can give them in just the class period: that is, the troublemakers and some of the slower learners.

For disruptive behavior, I give a student two or three warnings, then I send a conference slip to the parents. If a parent doesn't respond within five days, the child automatically goes on home suspension. Knowing this, most parents respond and come in to see me. Since many of the parents work, coming in for a conference means taking a day or half-day off. That can mean a real hardship for them, but they prefer it to a suspension.

Some parents are glad I call them in, because they didn't know their child was making trouble. In general, however, parents come in upset. They don't want to be there. I talk to them about what I'm trying to accomplish with their child. Usually they leave quite satisfied, and I will have found out all kinds of things. Maybe it turns out that the mother is an alcoholic or has had a serious illness and become addicted to the medication.

In any case, I almost always see a positive change in the children after I've had a conference with the parents. Sometimes the problem is one the parents can solve themselves; sometimes I refer them through the guidance staff to an outside agency that offers family counseling or other help.

If I tried to deal with the disruptive behavior or the apathy of my students without talking to their parents, I would never be able to understand the causes. Sometimes I get a real surprise.

For example, last year I had a student who never said a word and never finished an assignment. One of his eyes watered continuously, and he put his face right down close to his desk to see his work.

I called his mother in and told her I was worried about his eyesight.

She said, "Ms. Jackson, didn't you know that he has a glass eye? About four years ago he ran into a tree branch, and it put out his eye.

"Now he just reads everything he can get his hands on about an eye transplant. He's withdrawn, and he's hard to get along with. He just wants that eye."

That mother was very much concerned about her son, but she had no idea of what she could do to help. The guidance people had thought of putting him in a resource class for slower learners, but he didn't need that kind of help. He simply needed some help in accepting his condition. I helped him get counseling.

After that, if he was having trouble, he'd raise his hand or come up to the desk and ask me a question. He began to open up. And his next teacher knew from the beginning about the eye.

We still have some problems in our city schools, but I've decided the classroom is where I'll be for a good long time. I enjoy working with the children, and I have a lot of hope for them. □

BLACK EDUCATION IN

In the Republic of South Africa, education—like most other areas of human activity—has developed since 1948 under the official government policy of apartheid *(separate development). Today South Africa operates four distinct educational systems: one each for Whites, Africans (Blacks), Coloureds (people of mixed ancestry), and Asians. Until recently, each system emanated from a separate ministry of the national government.*

South African Blacks have long criticized the education system designed for them, primarily because of the substantial inequalities it exhibits when compared to the system for Whites. Education issues have in fact become basic to the struggle for equality. In recent years they have precipitated demonstrations by nonwhites that have led to violent encounters with police. Typically, the outbreaks have occurred in segregated urban areas, where the nonwhite ethnic groups live in their own neighborhoods or townships.

In 1976, high school students in Soweto, a Black suburb of Johannesburg, set off what were to become known as the Soweto riots. At issue was their refusal to accept the Afrikaans language, spoken by South Africans of Dutch descent, as a medium of instruction. The Government had recently ordered that half of all secondary subjects be taught in Afrikaans. This requirement, never uniformly or completely enforced, had been on the books for 20 years. The remaining subjects would continue to be taught in English, which is the mother tongue of the next largest number of Whites.

Black Africans prefer English alone, in large part because they see Afrikaans as the language of the oppressor. It was the Afrikaaner-dominated National Party which originated apartheid *after its electoral victory in 1948. Ever since then the National Party has controlled the national government and thus has been able to put* apartheid *into effect.*

The young people in Soweto thus decided they would have no more of Afrikaans. In the course of demonstrations, however, police shot and killed students and others. Rioting started on June 16 and spread to other areas of South Africa. According to the South African Institute of Race Relations, when deaths in related incidents elsewhere in the country throughout 1976 were added in, the death toll climbed to 618, of whom 85 were children or youths.

Student dissatisfaction and activism have not subsided in the years since 1976. The current year has also been marked by demonstrations and shootings by police. These events were triggered by Coloured students (later joined by Blacks), who boycotted their classes to protest inequality of conditions between their schools and the

By R. L. PETENI
President, African Teachers Association of South Africa.

chools for Whites.

In the following article, R. L. Peteni, president of the major Black teachers union in South Africa, describes the deficiencies of the education system for Blacks and explains what can be done about them.

In this article, I will try to give readers in the United States an insight into the status of Black education in South Africa and to describe the part played by Whites in the education of Blacks.

The structure of education in South Africa coincides with the discriminatory, unintegrated political structure of the country. The Blacks have a system of education that is at all levels distinct and separate from the education systems of other population groups. Consequently, Black children typically grow up in a world from which White people are absent. Their first encounters with Whites usually occur when they take their first jobs; naturally, they are likely to find such encounters quite jolting.

One of the goals of education for Black children should be to prepare them for the work situations in which they will ultimately find themselves. Unfortunately, the educational program is not always so planned.

Control of Black education. Black education is controlled by the Department of Education and Training, a ministry of the national government. It is the largest education department in the country in terms of both the size of its constituency and the scope of its task. Its constituency is a school population of more than 3 million Black South Africans. Its task is to provide the full range of education from literacy through university training, as well as training for employment in trade and industry at various levels. (In fact, if the Black states which have become independent*—Transkei, Bophuthatswana, and Venda—are included, the total number of pupils is 4.5 million. It is fair to include these three states because in spite of their independence they still work closely with South Africa and are dependent on it for many of their educational services.)

What is most striking about the

*So-called independent Black states, or Bantustans, of which Transkei, Bophuthatswana, and Venda are the first, are the ultimate outcome of *apartheid.* Eventually all South Africans who are classified as African, or Black, will be assigned an ethnic "homeland" on the basis of their tribal origins.

The homelands are rural enclaves within South Africa's traditional borders. The South African Government's plan is for them to evolve into Black states and to provide Blacks with the rights of citizenship. Consequently, when Blacks are in South Africa—that is, in the urbanized commercial and industrial part of the country (where millions of them now live)—they will be aliens.

Whatever status their eventual citizenship in the independent states may give Blacks, their South African citizenship in recent years has meant not having political rights or such basic civil liberties as the right to own property with full title deeds, to live where they please, and to be free from restrictions on their movements in the big cities.—*Ed.*

SOUTH AFRICA

Young student demonstrators being chased and shot at by riot police in Alexandra, a suburban township of Johannesburg, South Africa.

The holocaust is certain to come if discrimination is not outlawed.

Department that administers education for Blacks is that at the higher levels, it is controlled solely by Whites—from the minister through the deputy minister, secretary, deputy secretary, under secretary, planners, directors, and regional directors down to the circuit inspectors. Black personnel begin to appear only at the level of inspector (under a circuit inspector), head teacher (principal), and teacher. And yet the Department is supposed to concern itself solely with Black education.

The African Teachers Association of South Africa (ATASA) and other Black organizations have demanded not only that Black academics be appointed to some of the posts in the Department, including the highest, but also that the education system be single, uniform, and nondiscriminatory, under one government department—instead of four separate education systems as at present. Genuine lovers of South Africa look forward to the day when this will be achieved, but the response of the authorities to this demand has not yet been satisfactory.

Financing Black education. The present Government has been criticized for continuing its predecessors' policy of unequal financing of education for different population groups. According to several experts, the Government's per capita expenditure on Black education is one-tenth the expenditure on White education. The Black community itself—through contributions and the payment of student fees that other ethnic groups do not have to pay—tries but cannot begin to narrow this expenditure gap. The low quality of Black education is in the main traceable to this insufficiency of funds. Administrators, teachers, and the public continually point to poor funding as the main cause of the Department's failure to reach the educational goals set in all the areas discussed below.

Compulsory education. Education is compulsory for Whites in South Africa but not for Blacks. Black leaders demand the immediate introduction of compulsory education, but the authorities cite the following obstacles which, they say, make it impracticable at this stage.

- Shortage of teachers. There are not enough teachers for the schools that would have to be constructed.
- Lack of free textbooks. The Department has not yet reached the goal of supplying all Black pupils with free textbooks. Education cannot be made compulsory before it is completely free.
- Overcrowding at current enrollment levels. Double sessions must be eliminated and the pupil-teacher ratio, which is approximately 50 to 1, must be drastically reduced before enrollment can be increased.
- Need for parent education. To reduce the volume of truancy cases that would likely ensue from the introduction of compulsory education, parents must be educated and prepared for the changes which the system would bring.

The immediate objective of the Department is to introduce compulsory education in densely populated centers such as Soweto, Cape Town, and Port Elizabeth. These localities have almost enough classrooms to absorb all school-age children.

Preprimary education. The record of the Department in preprimary education has been extremely poor. Provision for nursery schools was made in the Education and Training Act of 1979, but the measure has not been implemented.

Many of the problems in primary, secondary, and tertiary education are traceable to the country's neglect of preprimary education. It is too late to demand equal opportunity in employment and equal pay for equal work and qualifications if preparation for employment has been unequal.

Consequently, there must be full equality of educational opportunities for all population groups from nursery school to university. This means the fight for equality must be fought and won at the preprimary level and at the lower primary level if we hope to win it at the upper levels.

Primary education. Primary school education for the Black children who are in school (less than 60 percent in the first years, far less after that) has many weaknesses. The poor quality of school buildings, compared to those for Whites, provides physical evidence that Black education has inferior status. Many buildings were erected mainly at the initiative of the local Black community, the Department contributing only half the cost.

Recently, the Cabinet has approved in principle an item in the Department's budget covering the total cost of community schools in Black townships. This would remove the financial burden borne by the communities until now. Providing sufficient classroom accommodation for the needs of the Black community will take some time, however.

Double sessions and large class sizes—two results of the past construction policy—constitute two of the main causes of the poor quality of Black education. The architects of Bantu education (as Black education was officially called until quite recently) introduced double sessions to make education available to as many Black children as possible and at the same time avoid large beginners' classes. They gave one teacher, usually a female, the responsibility of teaching 100 pupils each school day, in two three-hour sessions for 50 pupils each.

Clearly, one primary teacher cannot teach 100 pupils effectively. The Department now intends to eliminate double sessions, and 1.5 million rand has been appropriated for this purpose.

Language has presented one of the most difficult problems for Black pupils. They have to try to master two foreign languages, English and Afrikaans, in addition to their own mother tongues. The Government's introduction of the policy that Afrikaans be a medium of instruction was one of the causes of Black opposition to the Bantu

Education Act of 1954.

ATASA has maintained that the mother tongue should be the medium of instruction in the first four years of primary school, and that from then on through the highest level of education, English should be the vehicle of learning. The 1976 Soweto riots prodded the Department into accepting this policy.

Secondary education. Unequal facilities have a negative effect on Black students at the secondary level just as they do at the primary level. For example, a recent daily newspaper article compared facilities at a high school for Blacks in the South African city of East London with those of a high school for Whites that served a similar number of pupils. Here are the glaring inequalities the comparison revealed:

	Black school	*White school*
Classrooms	16	38
Laboratories	1	4
Music Rooms	0	4
Total teachers	27	46
Total teachers who are university graduates	9	35
Average class size	48	28

In addition, pupils at the Black high school must buy workbooks, exercise books, and notebooks, which the White pupils receive free. Similarly, the Black school has 1 overhead projector and 1 slide projector, whereas the White school has 15 overhead projectors, 6 tape recorders, and 2 film projectors. The White school has subsidized transport and a clinic with first aid facilities; the Black school has neither.

These conditions at the Black high school are typical of those at many high schools for Blacks in South Africa. To some extent they explain the high failure rate not only at Black high schools but also at universities.

Other policies of the national government have adversely affected secondary education for Blacks by their negative impact on Black faculty.

• Language policy has made recruitment of secondary school teachers extremely difficult. Many young Black university graduates resented the requirement—eliminated in 1976—that African teachers and pupils use both Afrikaans and English as media of instruction.

• The policy of local control of Black education by school boards established under the Bantu Education Act has been a sore point with young teachers who are university graduates. Some members of local school boards and school committees are semiliterate, yet until recently they had authority to appoint and dismiss teachers.

ATASA has fought vigorously against such authority. The policy was changed in the Education and Training Act of 1979, which provides that the powers to appoint, promote, and discharge teachers vest in the Minister of Education and Training.

• The policy of unequal pay for Black and White university graduates teaching in the same institutions, doing the same work, and holding the same qualifications has been objectionable to Black teachers. Until a few years ago, the authorities required that the salaries of White people be higher than those of Blacks. Recently, a change in principle has come about, and the Government has declared its intention to close the salary gap. Nonetheless, the rate at which the gap is being closed is slow and is itself a cause of dissatisfaction.

The Government's per capita expenditure on Black education is one-tenth the expenditure on White education.

The Government claims that parity has been achieved at the top rungs of the ladder. As I indicated earlier, however, job discrimination occurs in promotions to these higher rungs. This practice has the overall effect of preventing Black teachers from reaching the more lucrative posts, where parity is said to exist.

The combined effect of these policies has been to make the teaching profession unattractive to Black university graduates. They prefer to go into commerce and industry or to emigrate to other countries. Secondary school principals have been compelled to hire underqualified teachers, and standards have declined in consequence. In fact, the Government will have to allow secondary schools to recruit teachers from abroad if the staffing situation is to improve. The presence of such expatriate teachers, who could not be subjected to discrimination, might be a means of breaking down discrimination against South African Blacks.

Students' militant opposition to Government policies is another serious problem for staff in Black secondary schools. Some faculty members are White, and students sometimes regard them as representatives of White autocracy and agents of oppression. Yet they need these White teachers to help them acquire a good education.

Many high school problems have their origin in the students' ambivalent attitude toward their school. On the one hand, they value it because it equips them for life; on the other, they reject it because it is planned and controlled by an administration whose declared policy is discrimination against, and therefore oppression of, Black people. A great deal of the irresponsible conduct and violence that mark student disturbances is due not to the normal rebelliousness of youth, but to a spirit of revolt against the economic, social, and political structure of the country.

I believe that all is not yet lost. Both Blacks and Whites who have the best interests of South Africa at heart are searching for a fair and just dispensation to save the country from the holocaust that is certain to come if discrimination is not outlawed within the next few years. I believe also that, in spite of the Soweto tragedy of 1976 and the continuing impatience of Black people with Government policies, the democratic spirit that one senses in the Government will triumph over reactionary forces and launch the country on the road to justice, peace, and prosperity. □

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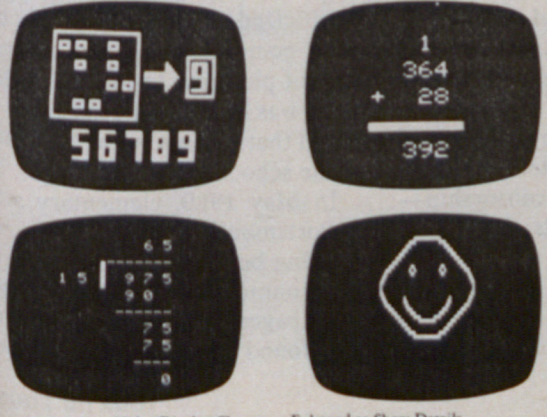

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CENSORSHIP IN THE SCHOOLS: Something Old and Something New

The first public burning of a book in America took place in 1650, when Thomas Pynchon's *The Meritorious Price of Our Redemption* was set aflame in the Boston marketplace by the common executioner. In his book *The First Freedom*, Nat Hentoff recalls the reason given for that burning: "The author's religious ideas, declared the authorities, differed from the colony's established religion and so had to be obliterated."

The last public burning of a book in America (as of this writing) took place in 1977, when 40 copies of a textbook, *Values Clarification*, were burned in Warsaw, Indiana, by a group of senior citizens. The book (along with the high school course for which it was used) had to go, the group claimed, because it taught situation ethics, moral relativism, and secular humanism. They feared it would destroy home-taught values.

If a message is to be found in these two sad stories, perhaps it is this: Over centuries, though times and life-styles change and wars transform the political geography of the globe, the fundamental issues that divide one person from another remain much the same.

In 1977, as in 1650 and throughout the intervening years, supporters of some established version of morality and truth have condemned ideas they considered offensive and prohibited their utterance.

Book burnings in the public marketplace are not common occurrences. In public school classrooms and libraries, however, First Amendment rights are tenuous at best and often in conflict with other perceived rights. There, books, various other teaching materials, and entire courses of study are at all times vulnerable to the pressures of censorship. Probably at no time have the pressures been more severe than they are just now.

From the American Library Association (ALA), the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), newspapers, and teachers in all parts of the country come reports of angry citizens groups organizing to protest what they describe as the anti-Christian, anti-American, anti-authority, antifamily, pornographic influence of certain books and other instructional materials in the schools.

Judith Krug, director of the ALA's Office for Intellectual Freedom, estimates that between 1975 and 1980, three times as many censorship attempts were reported as in the preceding decade. She believes the cases that make the news don't begin to tell the whole story of censorship in the country today. Three hundred censorship controversies may be reported in a given year. Krug suggests that there may be 10 times as many instances of uncontested removal or restriction of library and classroom materials and an even quieter kind of censorship—avoidance of all materials that might be controversial.

Who are the censors? Anyone with enough authority is a potential censor. The list of those who can censor school materials is long.

School boards. In 1979, a high school principal in Matthews County, Virginia, told one of his history teachers to withdraw assignment of Huxley's *Brave New World*. When the teacher went ahead with the assignment, the school board notified him that his contract would not be renewed.

In January 1980, the North Jackson, Ohio, board of education ordered removal from the high school library shelves of seven books: *Catcher in the Rye, Go Ask Alice, Hooper, Manchild in the Promised Land, Slaughterhouse Five, To Sir with Love,* and *Up the Down Staircase.*

The Anaheim, California, school board has banned from the schools all of Shakespeare but *Hamlet* and *Romeo and Juliet* and all of Dickens except *Oliver Twist.*

School administrators. A high school principal in Knoxville, Tennessee, cancelled the school library's subscriptions to a county newspaper after it criticized the school's policy of taking a commission on the charges for student pictures. The principal said he felt it was his duty to censor any publication that was not in the best interests of the school.

In May 1980, elementary students in Portsmouth, Rhode Island, received coloring books (published by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency) with pages torn out. Their principal had found objectionable the portions

of the books that alluded to the dangers of overpopulation. The deleted pages warned that 4 billion people inhabit the earth and that overpopulation can lead to crowded neighborhoods, heavy traffic, and air and water pollution.

Teachers and librarians. A 1977 survey by the National Council of Teachers of English indicated that teachers accounted for nearly 7.5 percent and librarians for nearly 3 percent of censorship in public schools.

State education agencies. In 1976, the Texas State Textbook Commission banned five common dictionaries that contain allegedly obscene definitions—for example, a definition of *bed* as a verb. The banning was prompted by complaints presented by Norma Gabler, who, with her husband, regularly submits bills of particulars on objectionable portions of textbooks being considered for adoption. From their home in Longview, Texas, the Gablers operate Education Research Analysts, a tax-exempt organization that assists local censorship efforts. For a modest, tax-deductible contribution, they will send a file of textbook reviews that point out questionable items.

Textbook publishers. In 1974, violent book protest confrontations drew national attention to Kanawha County, West Virginia. The controversy heralded the current wave of censorship in the schools. In response, textbook publishers began to delete some of the

materials that they were just beginning to include in the texts—materials that portrayed, for the first time, the racial and cultural diversity of the nation and the perspectives and contributions of minorities and women.

In a recent *Sixty Minutes* appearance, several textbook publishers acknowledged that they have revised some of their publications to ensure that they will pass the Gablers' scrutiny.

State legislatures. In 1975 the Oregon legislature adopted a textbook selection guidelines law which included the following language: "No textbook shall be used which speaks slightingly of the founders of the republic or of those who preserved the union or which undervalues their work." Similar legislation has been introduced but not passed in several other states, including Indiana and Pennsylvania.

The U.S. Congress (potentially). In September 1979, Sen. Paul Laxalt (R.-Nev.) introduced S. 1808, the Family Protection Act. Equal Rights Amendment opponent Phyllis Schlafly hailed the bill as marking "the dawn of a new era in federal legislation . . . toward more family responsibility and less federal control and spending." The proposed legislation has an ironic twist: Right-wing forces traditionally oppose federal aid to public education and its alleged consequence—federal control. S. 1808, however, provides the incentive of federal money to induce public schools to comply with the provisions. If S. 1808 were to become law, any local or state agency that did not comply with its provisions would lose funds under all applicable federal programs.

Education issues comprise the major portion of the bill. Notably, it prohibits—

- Teaching of any course of instruction "seeking to inculcate values or modes of behavior which contradict the demonstrated belief and values of the community."
- Use of any educational materials that would "tend to denigrate, diminish, or deny the role differences between the sexes as it [sic] has been historically understood in the United States."

The bill also supports school prayer and private education and attacks equal opportunity for young women in athletics, agency shop for teachers, and the nondiscrimination requirement for federal aid recipients.

Democracy Demands Free Teachers

Any system of government that aspires to the democratic ideal places a heavy burden of responsibility upon the people it is established to serve. The burden is actually far heavier than under a totalitarian government, whether communist or fascist in nature. The totalitarian system may require hard work and material sacrifice, but it makes virtually no demands on the intellect of its citizens. In fact, it discourages independent thought in favor of blind obedience and loyalty.

In contrast, the democratic system demands of the individual the ability to reason, to analyze and relate data. The citizen must make informed and intelligent choices at the ballot box and in the marketplace and must see through a deceptive façade—whether a contrived political image or a specious television sales pitch.

I believe that a fundamental purpose of public school education is to teach students the processes of data gathering and intellectual analysis, so that as adults they will be able to make rationally based decisions. This, I believe, is as basic and essential a purpose of education as is the teaching of the basic survival skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic.

The development of an adult generation of critically thinking, informed citizens is fundamental to the survival of our system of government—and indeed of far more than that. The choices facing today's youth—who will be the nation's leaders during the twenty-first century—will be life-or-death choices. They will determine whether the peoples of the earth can live together in peace or whether they will destroy the human race through warfare or through ruining our natural environment.

If we, as teachers, are to help prepare children to face these challenges, we must be free to inform them honestly of the history of this nation and others. We must be free to provide them with a vast diversity of literature, classical and contemporary, according to their level of maturity. Only then can they understand and appreciate the many cultures, races, and ethnic groups that comprise the society of humans on this earth.

Those who seek to suppress free inquiry in our public schools—ideologues of the radical right—would impose upon teachers dangerous restrictions. Beyond teaching the rote skills, the censors would have us confine ourselves to—

- Teaching an idealized, Dick-and-Jane version of American history, ignoring what minorities and women have contributed to our society and what they have suffered from it.
- Teaching a myopic, tunnel-vision perspective on the world that ignores the fact that other peoples, cultures, and ways of life have validity, have dignity, and deserve our respect.
- Teaching a bowdlerized version of literature, excluding much that is most beautiful and all that is most intellectually provocative.
- Teaching a chauvinism that admits no blemish in our economic system or our system of justice and encourages disdain for all who are poorer or weaker than ourselves and are unable to compete successfully.

We will not yield to these contemptible demands of the right-wing critics and would-be censors of education.

I hope that the people of this country will similarly never yield to the political grouping that calls itself the New Right. For the censors and the right-wing politicos work toward the same goal: a world in which a privileged few hold all the wealth and power and those who have less are pitted against one another in mutual hostility and self-defeat.

—Willard McGuire, *NEA President.*

Who's pressuring for censorship?

An irate citizen storms into the educator's office, demanding that a "subversive" textbook be censored. An equally angry visitor insists that "money is being spent foolishly." A group descends upon the superintendent to plead for a "return" to the three R's. A minister lambastes the schools from his pulpit, while a politician builds his criticism into his platform. Patriotic organizations bemoan the lack of fundamental Americanism, and college professors decry the lack of fundamental learning.

Not only is American education under fire; the practice of criticizing our schools is well on its way to becoming a national pastime. For some, it is already a favorite armchair sport. For others, it has become a full-time career.

PEANUTS
WHY WOULD THEY BAN MISS SWEETSTORY'S BOOK FROM THE SCHOOL LIBRARY?
I CAN'T BELIEVE IT.. I JUST CAN'T BELIEVE IT!
MAYBE THERE ARE SOME THINGS IN HER BOOK THAT WE DON'T UNDERSTAND...
IN THAT CASE, THEY SHOULD ALSO BAN MY MATH BOOK!

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That account might have been written yesterday, but it wasn't. It is, in fact, the opening paragraph of a book published 18 years ago, *The Axe-Grinders* by Mary Anne Raywid. Its analysis of the organized patterns of right-wing extremist criticism of the schools is as timely today as it was in 1962.

This is not to say that all criticism of the schools is organized, right-wing in origin, or unjustified. It would be absurd to claim that mistakes are never made in the selection of instructional materials or the shaping of educational programs and methods. Reasonable, constructive criticism is necessary to ensure that schools remain accountable to the people and to help them do a better job.

Not all attempts at censorship, furthermore, come from right-wing extremists. Efforts by minorities and women to remove such books as *Little Black Sambo* or *Mary Poppins* from school libraries are efforts to censor. On the other hand, those same groups often try to persuade schools and textbook publishers to provide books that treat women and minorities fairly and that include their contributions to and viewpoints on history. Such efforts seem to be just the opposite of censorship; they seek fairness and honesty, not exclusion.

At present, in fact, the schools are the target of criticism and pressure from many segments of the population. In his 1976 book, *Values in Education*, Max Lerner analyzes this dilemma:

> Curiously, the people in the society expect the school to act as the final fortress, remaining firm even as the cracks are opening up in the society around it. The fact is that the family, the churches, the neighborhood, the community, the party system, the class and ethnic systems, the legal and sexual codes, the value system, have all been subjected to an intensive battering. So have the schools. Yet with a real confusion about what the schools can and can't do, many people expect them to assume the burdens which the other institutions have faltered in bearing.

Such times are the most hospitable to the demagoguery of the radical right. Confused people often look for simple answers. Frustrated and angry people look for something or someone to blame. People suffering the trauma of rapid, unsettling change tend to look nostalgically to the past.

When the civil rights movement gathered momentum in the early 1960's, many Americans were confused and fearful for a variety of reasons. The right-wing extremists were ready then with simple answers, easy culprits, and "good old days" solutions.

At the peak of the civil rights movement in the later 1960's and during the antiwar and student rights movements of the late 1960's and early 1970's, the voices of the right were muffled.

Over the past five years, however, those voices have returned in full force. They offer the schools as a scapegoat for much of what is wrong with our society, offer the "good old days" solution of censorship for what is wrong with the schools.

The targets of the censors today are similar to those of two decades ago. Prominent on their hit lists are materials by or about minorities and women; about the problems of poverty; or about cultures that differ markedly from that of White, middle-class Americans.

Sex education remains a major concern of the censors. The *Family Issues Voting Index*, a rating of Congress published by the Christian Voters' Victory Fund, complains that—

> We know that love and sex should be taught in the home, accompanied by Biblical values and genuine compassionate guidance. But we allowed our schools to become smut factories, our textbooks sex-books.

Teachers themselves are a central target of censors who call their competence and good faith into question. The censors allege that instead of teaching Johnny to read, teachers are clarifying his values; instead of teaching students to respect flag, God, and family, they are indoctrinating them into a "religion" called *secular humanism*.

Any teaching that encourages children to value human beings, their different cultures, beliefs, ways of life; any teaching of how human cultures developed on the earth or, indeed, of how life developed on the earth is considered the teaching of secular humanism. Some fundamentalist and right-wing groups maintain that secular humanism is a religion so they can argue that curricular areas they dislike are unconstitutional. The First Amendment mandate that our country have no officially supported religion prohibits the propagation of religion in public schools.

The censors of the radical right have many other concerns: not only what they want out of the schools, but what they want in—for example, prayer, the teaching of the creationist theory of how life developed on earth if the theory of evolution is taught, and the teaching of unquestioning loyalty to the free enterprise system and to the values of the Judeo-Christian tradition.

In general, the right-wing critics of education are moving in the same directions they have moved in the past.

But in 1980, they are moving with new confidence.

The renewed vitality of right-wing censors today comes from the company they keep. Some of their associates are such men as Paul Weyrich, Richard Viguerie, and Howard Phillips, leaders of the ultra-right political apparatus headquartered in Washington, DC, that is known as the New Right. Others are electronic preacher/politicians such as the Rev. Jerry Falwell, a Baptist minister from Lynchburg, Virginia, who has broadcast from coast to coast the message that "we must bring immoral public education to its knees." Falwell heads Moral Majority, a coalition dedicated to

> mobilizing the grass roots of America . . . lobbying intensively in Congress . . . helping the moral majority of America fight obscene school textbooks. . . . and recruiting and training moral American men and women for political office.

Rev. Falwell's *Old Time Gospel Hour* finances his projects with the $1 million a week it reportedly produces from his television congregations.

The censorship battles that teachers are confronting in school systems around the country are no isolated academic concern. Censorship activity is no longer the work of a few fanatics but an important tool in the political power plays of the radical right.

Such people as Mel and Norma Gabler, the textbook critics of Longview, Texas—even such men as the Rev. Jerry Falwell—are not at the center of New Right organization and influence. But theirs are the issues that give life to this movement. Through them the New Right hopes to translate its own political and economic agenda into one for the nation.

The ethics of the New Right's use of family issues to engage the attention and support of the American people is dubious. Certainly such use obstructs rational public discussion of important matters that require reasoned examination and debate.

Teachers and their organizations need to confront some serious issues in public education:

- Tax support of the schools
- The balancing of student rights, parent rights, and professional rights in the selection of instructional materials and development of educational programs
- How far First Amendment protections extend into the public school classroom, the school library, the public library.

Teachers and school administrators need to listen, too, to the legitimate concerns and criticisms of parents—conservatives, moderates, and liberals. The sound and fury raised by the extremist school critics stifles reasonable debate and threatens to place teachers in the position of retreat and self-defense.

Teachers and their advocates must recognize demagoguery for what it is and refuse to let it cut them off from attending to the real needs of parents and students.

—**Dorothy C. Massie,** *NEA Teacher Rights.*

NEA RESOLUTIONS

Selection of Materials and Teaching Techniques

The National Education Association believes that decisions on which school learning experiences and teaching techniques will develop a student's talents are best made by a teacher who knows the learner. Teaching quality depends on freedom to make such decisions. Teachers must select instructional materials without censorship. Challenges of the choice of instructional materials must be orderly and objective, under procedures mutually adopted by professional associations and school boards.

The Association urges its affiliates to seek the removal of laws and regulations which restrict the selection of a diversity of instructional materials or which limit educators in the selection of such materials.

Cultural Diversity in Instructional Materials and Processes

The National Education Association believes that educational materials and processes should portray our cultural diversity and the contributions of ethnic minority groups. Ethnic minority teachers must be involved in selecting educational materials and in preparing teachers in their use.

The Association recognizes that additional instructional materials chosen for classrooms and libraries may rightfully contain a number of points of view to allow students to become familiar with the attitude and recommendations from various segments of the literary world. The Association also acknowledges that many contemporary texts related to ethnic minority groups do not portray realistically their life-styles but convey a negative self-concept to ethnic minority students.

The Association believes that educators should adopt and use only those basal texts and other educational materials that include accurate portrayals of the role of ethnic minorities in the past, present, and future educational processes.

Academic Freedom

The National Education Association believes that academic and professional freedom is essential to the teaching profession. Controversial issues should be a part of instructional programs when judgment of the professional staff deems the issues appropriate to the curriculum and to the maturity level of the student. Academic freedom is the right of the learner and his/her teachers to explore, present, and discuss divergent points of view in the quest for knowledge and truth.

Professional freedom includes the teacher's right to evaluate, to criticize, and to advocate his/her personal point of view concerning the policies and programs of the schools. The teacher also has the right to assist colleagues when their academic or professional freedom is violated.

Extremist Groups

The National Education Association is concerned about the emergence and resurgence of extremist groups.

The Association strongly believes that our nation's children must be educated to understand and respect cultural, ethnic, religious, and other individual differences, the rights of others, and the importance of these to a healthy pluralistic democracy.

The Association condemns the philosophy and practices of extremist groups and their efforts to recruit young people in our schools, and it urges all its affiliates and members to oppose actively all such movements whose objectives are inimical to the ideals of the Association.

In-Service Isn't Really Education

Many teachers have no respect for in-service programs, and we have some good reasons for our attitude. Consider some common defects of in-service education programs.

First of all, administrators usually plan in-service programs to meet teachers' needs as the administrators perceive them. Teachers cannot be committed to in-service training if they have no share in deciding what it is to be.

Many states do require school systems to administer a needs assessment to teachers, parents, and students before holding in-service programs. Too often, however, this does not actually take place. Instead—

- In-service planners include teachers after the logistics have been settled,
- Planners choose passive individuals who will not rock the boat to represent teachers in planning in-service programs, or
- Planners exclude teachers entirely from the planning.

Is this teacher involvement?

Planners of in-service programs need to take into consideration teachers' specific grade level assignments, proficiencies or deficiencies in basic skills, and years of experience, as well as the learning environment necessary to make the most of teachers' capabilities. A needs assessment would give them the information they need.

A second aspect of in-service education that concerns and frustrates teachers is the quality of the presentations. Teachers often say an in-service program was boring, a waste of time, ill-prepared, unrealistic, just more theory.

Currently the staffs of most in-service programs come from local colleges or from the administrative staffs of local school systems. They often recite theories and describe the experiences of others. Teachers would like presentations by leaders and trainers who are also successful classroom practitioners.

By using the expertise of teachers, a program can give credibility to new ideas that the participants might otherwise consider unrealistic. Teachers relate to new methods, materials, and programs that are practical and have worked for other teachers.

A third cause of discontent with in-service programs is the practice of scheduling them at the end of the day or on Saturday morning. How can teachers enjoy or receive maximum benefit from in-service programs held at those times?

An average day in the life of a teacher includes many different tasks such as disciplining a disruptive child; filling out attendance cards and/or registers; performing bus duty, hall duty, lunch duty, breakfast duty; teaching table manners; holding conferences with parents; filling the hall bulletin board; counseling an abused child; refereeing a fight; grading papers; completing paperwork for administrative personnel or doctoral students; keeping an updated class folder for each child; requisitioning instructional supplies; and, last but not least, teaching. Yet many school systems expect teachers to participate wholeheartedly in an in-service program at the end of such a day.

Like the schools, industry trains its employees for professional growth. Industry, however, provides appropriate conditions for learning. Employees do not receive training about a new product or selling technique at the end of a work day. Perhaps the schools should consider using industrial approaches, such as practitioner-taught programs and released time for a full or half day.

Providing these alternatives would be expensive. Before judging them unfeasible, however, the schools should examine the long-range benefits they may bring. Better teaching means better learning for students.

My fourth objection to current in-service programs is that they deny evaluation the attention it deserves. The checklists commonly used for evaluation seem to be designed to assure workshop leaders that programs have been beneficial. They come, furthermore, at the wrong time. Evaluation done before teachers try out their new knowledge in the classroom cannot be accurate.

Teachers are actively concerned about their professional growth. They have demonstrated their capabilities in this area on professional standards commissions, professional practices commissions, and boards of education as well as in state legislatures. They become passive, however, when they are treated as though they were incapable of making those decisions that directly affect their lives.

To those who are directly responsible for designing and administering in-service programs, I say—the time to change is now. Teachers' renewed sense of professionalism will not permit them to accept without question in-service programs that are paternalistically designed and carried out. □

By JOAN Y. POLITE
Seventh Grade Teacher, Peeples Street Elementary School, Atlanta, Georgia.

This is one of a series of articles written by classroom teachers on their pet peeves in the classroom. Today's Education *encourages other teachers to submit manuscripts that would be appropriate in the series.*

The Toronto, Ontario, schools offer secondary school students specialized programs, as do many big-city systems in the United States. Entrance to secondary schools, however, is not automatic. The conclusion of the eighth year of school marks a critical time in the education of young people in Toronto. Promotion to the secondary level is by the explicit decision of their teachers and principals. Students who are promoted may choose from among academic, technical, and commercial secondary programs. The 20 percent of an age group who are not promoted have the limited options of attending either vocational or occupational schools.

Lawrence Park Collegiate Institute is one of Toronto's 12 academic high schools. Some 1,100 university-bound students in grades 9 through 13 attend the school. (Grade 13, a vestige of the British sixth form, is necessary for entrance to a four-year university in Ontario but not for high school graduation.)

Located in a residential section of North Toronto, the school has a

Meet Patricia Vance

Patricia Vance (second from left) meets with a group of her students.

three-story, red-brick building that dates back to the 1930's. As part of Today's Education's *continuing series of interviews with teachers, Nancy Needham of the editorial staff visited Lawrence Park and talked to faculty member Patricia Vance.*

Ms. Vance began her school career as a teacher of French and Latin. Since 1973, however, she has been in charge of Lawrence Park's resource room program that helps learning disabled students cope with the demands of a highly academic curriculum. Her husband, Bruce, is an English consultant with the Toronto school board. They met early in their careers at a Latin Department meeting; they live with their two sons in a North Toronto neighborhood not far from Lawrence Park.

When did you decide you wanted to be a teacher? Were you a college student at the time?

No, I was still in high school. I went to a girls summer camp and later became a counselor there. It was really that initial informal teaching experience that hooked me. I enjoy watching people learn, and I like learning things myself. Being a resource room teacher is ideal, because I have to be familiar with the entire curriculum. Consequently, I'm always having to learn things.

After high school I entered the University of Toronto. I took an honors course in Latin and French, with Greek on the side. An honors degree—which means taking a four-year as opposed to a three-year course and achieving at least minimum grades in all major courses—is a prerequisite for being a specialist high school teacher.

Did it take you four years to prepare for secondary teaching?

Four years at the University, studying Latin and French and Greek, and one year more of teacher training in its Faculty of Education.

Up until the early 1970's, the model of teacher training in Ontario had been university first, teacher training in the year after. York University, which is a relatively new institution in Toronto, now offers the kind of program you have in the States, where you do education and a B.S. or a B.A. at the same time—except that York still requires five years to do the combined course.

Did you then get a master's?

I didn't do a master's then; I wanted to get to work right away. Later, dur-

ing the 1960's, I stayed home with my two sons for eight years. When they were both in school full-time, I decided to go back to work. But I didn't think anybody would want to hire me because I'd been messing around with diapers for eight years, so it was really a feeling of inferiority that drove me back to do a classics M.A. part time.

How did you shift from teaching languages to teaching the learning disabled?

I started the second phase of my teaching career as a Latin and French teacher at Northern Secondary School, which is the closest thing to a comprehensive school that exists in Toronto. As it happened, a resource room for the learning disabled had opened there the year before. I was interested in it because one of my sons had been in a program for kids with learning disabilities in elementary school, and I felt grateful for the help he had received.

I kept an eye on the program and got to know the teachers who worked in it. In the spring of the second year, I asked them what I would have to do to qualify to work in their program. It happened that one of them was pregnant, so they said, Why don't you come and work with us now? So I did. I didn't start my formal training until the same year I started the job.

Our older son, however, had taught me quite a bit at home about taking different approaches with kids who learn differently from regular students. Also, I had by that time joined the Association for Children with Learning Disabilities, which has its headquarters in the United States, and had gone to their conferences. Consequently, I had some idea about the field I would be entering.

How is education for the learning disabled and others with handicaps organized in Toronto?

There are special schools under a metropolitan-wide school board for the blind, the deaf, the trainable retarded, those with severe language handicaps. Then, for less handicapped students, the local area boards provide programs that operate like my resource room—taking kids out of regular classrooms for part of a day. There are also segregated, self-contained classrooms of six to 16 students at the elementary level. The rationale for these small classes is

In the Toronto area, problems are more severe in the suburbs than in the city.

that the teacher will be able to speed up the rate at which the children acquire the skills they will need to work independently in a regular classroom. That's our general aim: to help children move toward independence.

Is there concern that certain groups in the population—perhaps the immigrants or "New Canadians" as they are called—are disproportionately represented in these programs?

The Toronto School Board trustees have examined special education for the last three years because of this concern that poor children and children with New Canadian backgrounds will get channeled into special education classes and from there into lower-achieving high school streams.

Mainstreaming is one way to avoid such channeling. A pilot program will begin next fall, in which eight elementary schools across the city will take slow learners who have been in segregated classes and integrate them into regular classes. The pilot schools were carefully chosen so that the regular staff will have positive attitudes toward accepting these kids. The teachers who would have had the children in the segregated classes will act as consultants to the regular teachers.

It sounds as though you are moving in Toronto toward putting handicapped children in the "least restrictive environment," which, as I'm sure you know, is required in the United States by PL 94-142 [The Education for All Handicapped Children Act]. Do practices like this spread to Canada from the United States?

There is a definite influence. The phrase, "least restrictive environment," has long been in use here, although there is neither federal nor Ontario legislation making it official policy.

In general, the provincial ministries of education—especially the officials who write curriculum guidelines—play a major role in spreading American and British practices here. These officials go to conferences in the States and Britain and read professional journals from both countries. British authorities on education are invited to the English-speaking provinces to visit schools and to give in-service sessions. In the teaching of English, for example, British ideas are taken more seriously than American ones.

Has the Ontario Teachers' Federation [OTF] actively pushed for better education programs for the handicapped?

Yes, that's how I got actively involved in OTF. In 1970, a federal commission published a report called *One Million Children*, which described the different kinds of emotional and learning difficulties that children across Canada had and estimated how many there were with each. After that report came out, the OTF decided to appoint a committee to follow up the report in Ontario. Three years later, I was asked to represent the secondary school teachers on that committee.

The year after I went on the committee, there was new education legislation in Ontario and a new set of regulations to accompany it. The regulation that dealt with special education classes was supposed to establish limits on the size of self-contained special ed classes. About a month before the regulations were to become final, the president of the Federation discovered that the section on special ed had been radically altered. There were no longer limits by law on the numbers of kids who could be put into special ed classes. The Federation foresaw that because of some administrative problem, for example, teachers could have their classes overloaded. That would make an impossible situation both for them and for students. I was one of the people who ended up with the job of fighting the Ontario Ministry of Education to get them to change the regu-

lation. Fortunately, we were successful.

You were a lobbyist on that issue?

Yes. I did more lobbying after that. The Council for Exceptional Children here in Ontario came out in favor of establishing by law the right to education for all children regardless of their handicap—essentially with the same intent as your PL 94-142. That commitment does not yet exist here in black and white, either in law or regulations.

I think one of the most important things I did when I worked for the Federation was to persuade the Federation's Board of Governors to endorse that policy. As a result of similar efforts by both teacher and parent groups, a bill to establish mandatory education programs for all handicapped was introduced in the Ontario legislature last spring.

PL 94-142 is, of course, a federal program in the United States. Is your federal government likely to get involved in education of the handicapped?

No. Canadian education is exclusively a provincial responsibility. The federal government does give grants to fund specific programs—for example, French instruction for English speakers.

Do school boards that apply for federal funds have to meet federal guidelines to qualify?

Not that I know of.

What percentage of elementary-secondary expenditures are federal? The U.S. figure is 7 or 8 percent.

I don't think there is a Canadian figure, because federal involvement is so spasmodic.

Do teachers in Canada have the right to strike?

With education a function of the provincial governments, there isn't any federal law on the subject of teacher strikes. In 1975, the Ontario legislature passed Bill 100, which gave teachers in the province the right to strike.

At that time, secondary school teachers in Metro Toronto—about 8,000 in all—saw themselves slipping behind in salary. We had no cost-of-living allowance. We wanted to include working conditions, such as class size, in addition to economic issues in our negotiations. We had gone through all the channels and tried everything else but a strike, so in November 1975, soon after Bill 100 was passed, we voted overwhelmingly to go out on strike.

How long did the strike last?

About two months, from November to January. At about the same time, the federal government introduced anti-inflationary measures, including wage and price controls. So there we were—left on the street—wondering how the federal legislation would affect our stand, because we wanted a raise that was much higher than would be allowed.

The impasse was complete. Arbitrators were supposed to bring the two sides together, but it just didn't work. We ended up being legislated back to work by the Ontario Parliament. Of course, there was a lot of bitter feeling. We felt that we had been victimized by the federal legislation. People are just now, five years later, getting over it.

Were you able to get any of the things you wanted?

We did have some cost-of-living allowance built into the contract, but we didn't get class size accepted as a negotiable issue.

What is the typical class size here in each kind of secondary school?

In the core academic subjects—English, math, history, etc.—classes are supposed to have the same number of students, 23 to 27, regardless of what type of school they are in. But if scheduling constraints mean a class has to have 40 students, there is no law or regulation that forbids it.

As you were getting to be the OTF's specialist on special education, you were transferred from Northern Secondary to Lawrence Park. Were you the first teacher of the learning disabled at this school?

Yes. Both schools are in the same attendance area. Before 1973, students who were perfectly capable of doing all the advanced courses at Lawrence Park but who had specific learning problems had to attend Northern Secondary School if they wanted to participate in the learning disabilities program. In 1973, the school board sent me over from Northern so that kids who were qualified to go to this school wouldn't have to go elsewhere just for the sake of the one program.

What do you see as your basic function in an academic school?

My function is to help students with learning disabilities to fill in the learning gaps that remain from elementary school and at the same time to support them in their regular subject areas. I try to combine these two functions, the remedial and the tutorial, so that students are learning content from their regular subject classes and at the same time are improving their reading or computation skills, their problem-solving or note-taking skills or whatever.

How many students do you work with in one classroom period?

Three or four students per period, but I work with another teacher and an aide.

What's the hardest task this school asks learning disabled youngsters to do?

The hardest thing that high school students with specific learning problems have to do is to get it all together—study habits, organization. The specific disabilities vary from student to student. For instance, some are poor listeners who would be better off if

The hardest thing that students with learning problems have to do is get it all together—study habits, organization.

they could rely on a textbook to nail down the knowledge they have to acquire.

Most teachers use a wide variety of teaching approaches, but they do have preferences and we get to know what these are. When we schedule our students at the end of August, we try to match teaching style and learning style. This way there are fewer personality clashes, because teachers and students tend to be on the same wave length. We also try to make sure not to overload a class with kids we know have specific problems.

Tell me what you would do with a student who had information in his or her head but could not write it down in an essay.

Today, just before you arrived, I was working with a grade 12 student who has that problem on an art history essay. With three different books and his notes from class on his lap, he told me his views on the Rococo style. I typed his words onto a piece of paper, and by the end of the period we had a tiny but complete essay.

Will he ever be able to sit down at the typewriter and do that himself?

He will never be able to do it as well as somebody who does it easily.

A former student of mine at Northern who has this same problem is now in his third year at York University. He still insists on writing his exams in the usual way, with no extra time allotment and no other compensation for his disability. He *could* tape his essays and have them transcribed by somebody else, but he insists on being judged in the same way as his classmates. Consequently, instead of getting A's, he gets C's.

You have taught at both Northern Secondary, a comprehensive school, and at Lawrence Park, an academic one. Do you feel that youngsters at Northern had morale problems because they thought they were in a second-best place?

Within the school, morale was terrific. The school was organized for the benefit of the kids. It drew people from all over the city because it had a combination of courses that existed in no other single school. But even though the kids didn't feel they were second-class citizens, it was a different story when you talked to people in the community who didn't have children there or who, for example, worked in a social agency that made them perceive Northern students as problem kids.

Among young people, however, any notion that Lawrence Park is up and Northern Secondary down comes only from this end. Northern Secondary students see Lawrence Park as the place where those people go who are maybe a little too conscious of social status. Still, many families have children in both schools. One son will go to Northern and the other will come here, and they still speak!

How about discipline? Do the types of schools differ on that? Do Canadians perceive their discipline problems to be as serious as we think ours are in the States?

Generally, our problems don't seem to be as severe. What difficulties there are seem to depend on a school's size and location. Northern, for example, has twice as many students as Lawrence. Because students there aren't as likely to be known to each other or to faculty by name, the atmosphere tends to be more impersonal, and staff are likely to take a tougher line on infractions, such as being in the halls during class.

In the Toronto area, my impression is that problems are more severe in the suburbs than in the central city. Perhaps one reason for this is that low-cost housing has been put up in the suburbs rather than downtown, while upper income people are buying and renovating houses in the city and sending their children to the public schools.

Getting back to the Ontario Teachers' Federation, does it support political candidates?

No, but some of its member federations do.

What are they?

There are five of them. The Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation (OSSTF) is the one I belong to. Then there are two associations for public elementary school teachers, one for men and one for women; an association for teachers in the English-speaking Catholic schools; and an association for teachers in French-speaking schools, both public and separate [Roman Catholic].

OSSTF does endorse candidates. In the Toronto area, there are a series of political action committees within OSSTF districts. They submit questionnaires to candidates for school boards and for the Ontario Parliament, and endorse those who support the policies of the OSSTF—regardless of what party they belong to. The committees don't actively campaign for the candidates, however. None of the Ontario teachers' federations—at any level—has ever endorsed candidates in federal elections.

Did those five provincial federations come together to form the OTF?

Yes. They got the Ontario Parliament to pass a law—the Teaching Profession Act of 1944—which created the OTF. OTF represents the interests of the Ontario teachers with the provincial government and its agencies. The 1944 law requires teachers to belong to OTF and to one of the affiliates and provides for mandatory deduction of dues from their paychecks.

As we are taping, somebody has just congratulated you for winning an archery tournament last night. Are you the girls' archery coach here?

Yes, and I coach the boys, too. Three or four years ago, I decided to gear down my extracurricular activities. Archery was something I thought I could limit to one month a year from 8 till 9 in the morning. But then the passion developed. . . .

To win?

Not to win so much as to watch the kids get such a kick out of the sport that they continue it after they're through with school. It's nice to win, of course; it gives the kids a momentary lift in ego. But when I watch kids grab hold of a bow—hardly able to wait to start shooting—and when they buy their own equipment and start shooting on the outskirts of the city in the summertime, that turns me on. I think to myself: These kids have found something they can enjoy at 65, and that's far more meaningful than competition.

What about what they do in your resource room—do you think that will help them find enjoyable things to do between now and age 65?

I hope kids will learn to enjoy the process of acquiring knowledge and skills. To play with the archery analogy a bit—the range of goals in the classroom is certainly broader than in archery. Maybe my job is to help kids with learning disabilities hit the right targets successfully. □

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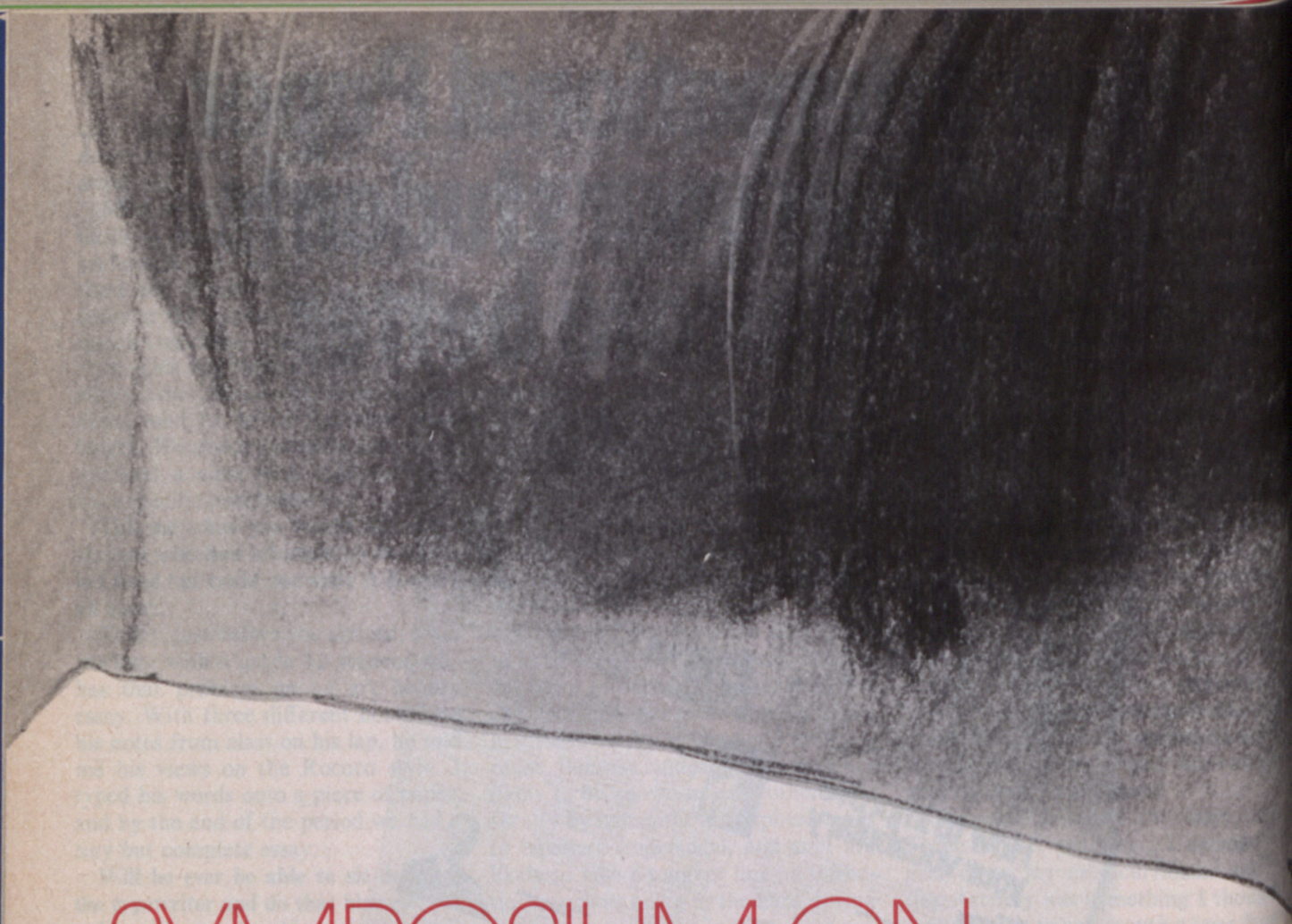
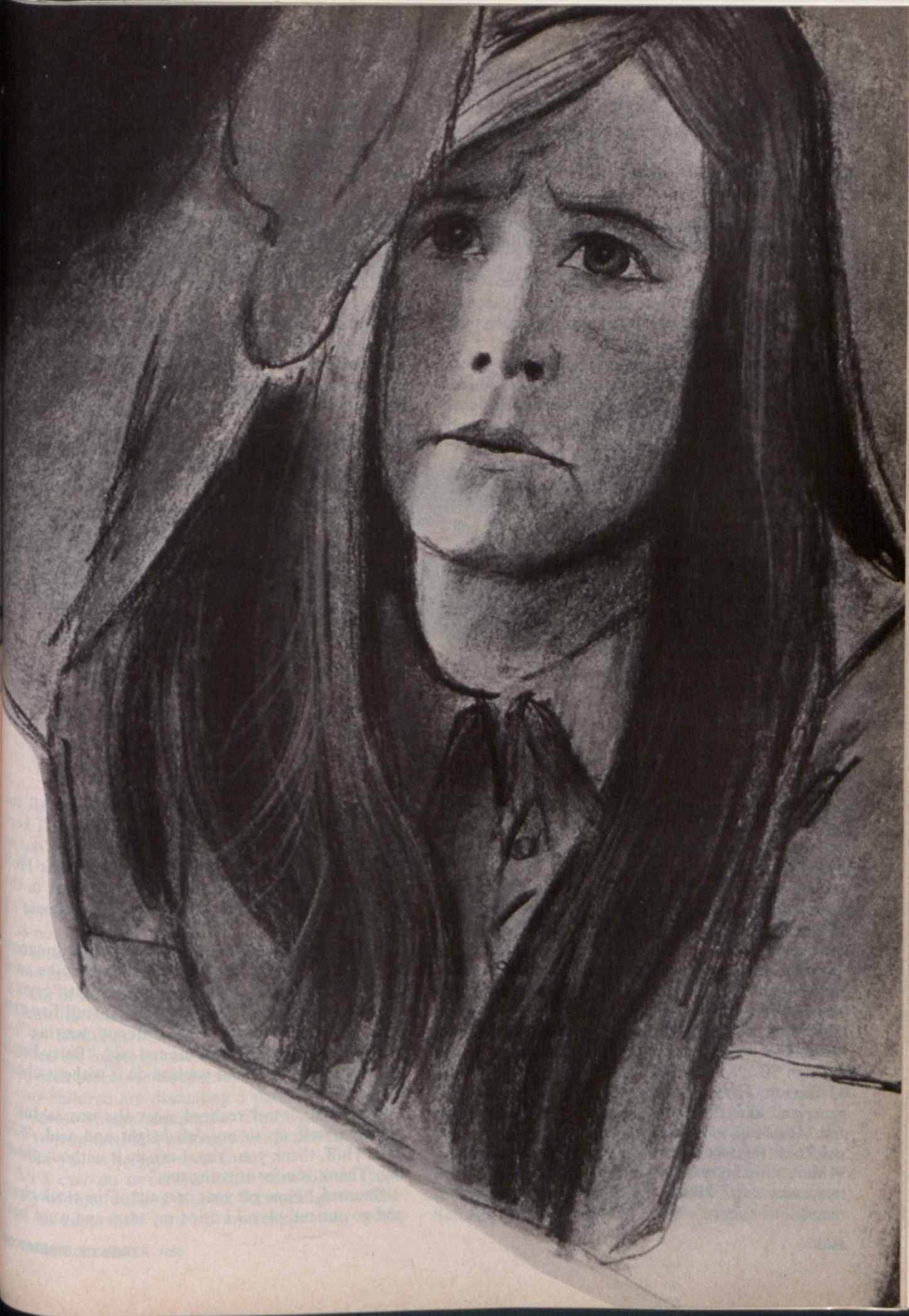


SYMPOSIUM ON CHEATING

From time to time, a cheating scandal arouses public notice briefly, then subsides. Unfortunately, the problem of cheating does not vanish with the scandal. Teachers may encounter it in their classrooms at any time.

Why does a student cheat? What kinds of cheating are most common? Do different cultures have different attitudes about sharing information? What are teachers doing to discourage cheating? What happens when cheating is detected?

The editors of Today's Education *looked for answers to these questions. What follows is what we learned—from teachers, students, and published accounts.*



CHEATING: A NATIONAL PASTIME?

Have you ever cribbed on an exam? Sixty-two percent of high schoolers once told Gallup they had.

Have you ever turned in a ghost-written term paper? Undergraduates have become instantly emeriti for turning in a purchased paper with the receipt for payment still contained within.

If you never cheated in school, you're in a select group. Last year the Carnegie Commission on Education reported that 30 to 50 percent of college students had cheated at one time or another. Nine percent said they always cheated.

Cheating at service academies has provoked agonized soul searching. In addition, several years ago Johns Hopkins University gave up its honor system as "unworkable." Princeton began reexamining its honor code after 17 percent of students admitted to cheating.

Competition for law and medical schools has not brought out the best in some candidates. A Columbia University student tinkered with his classmates' alarm clocks so they would oversleep a critical exam. When a grad school candidate at Cornell dropped his pencil during his exam, his feverish testmates kicked it away.

Recently, technology has given cheating new breadth and depth. Queens, New York, students got into a computer and raised 10,000 grades. In Australia, a graduate student programmed a computer to give his competitors wrong answers and give him the right ones.

If a survey done in the sixties still holds true, however, students are affected by trust or the lack of it. Granted, three-fourths of the 5,400 college students surveyed admitted an act of academic dishonesty. But although 36 percent of them cheated in closely proctored exams, only 18 percent cheated in unproctored tests.

—**Sid Moody,** *in an Associated Press news feature, April 13, 1980.*

"I CAN DO IT WITHOUT CHEATING"

One morning when I was in the fourth grade, I felt that I would just have to cheat on the spelling test that day. It seemed the only way I could save myself from a poor grade.

I had one of those lead pencils with a top you could take off. I wrote the word I couldn't spell—*kitchen*—on a little piece of paper and put it in the top of the lead pencil.

In the middle of the morning, the teacher, Miss Huff, said, "Boys and girls, get out your spelling tablets. It's time for your test."

We got out our Blue Horse spelling tablets, and Miss Huff started calling off the words. She got through 10, 11, 12 words, and I was ready. I pulled off the top of my lead pencil. I took out the piece of paper and looked up to make sure nobody saw me—and Miss Huff was looking straight at me.

I knew that she knew that I knew that she knew. Without missing a beat she walked past my desk and said, very low, "Betty Fay, you'll see me during recess."

Then 19 words, 20 words, and it was over. All the other students sent their papers up to the desk. I kept sitting. Miss Huff let all the other children go out to recess. I kept sitting. Then, in a moment, Miss Huff looked up at me, sitting fourth row back, next to the bulletin board. She said, "Betty Fay, please come up here."

I went up to her desk like a captive to the dungeon. She gave me a very stern look, I thought. She said, "Betty Fay, it's very hard, isn't it?" I started crying.

I said, "Miss Huff, this is the hardest stuff I've ever seen. I can't spell all the words without cheating."

She put her arms around me and said, "Betty Fay, I know how hard it is, but you can do it without cheating."

After a minute I realized what she was saying. I pulled myself up to my full height and said, "Oh, Miss Huff, thank you. Yes, I can do it without cheating. Thank you for trusting me."

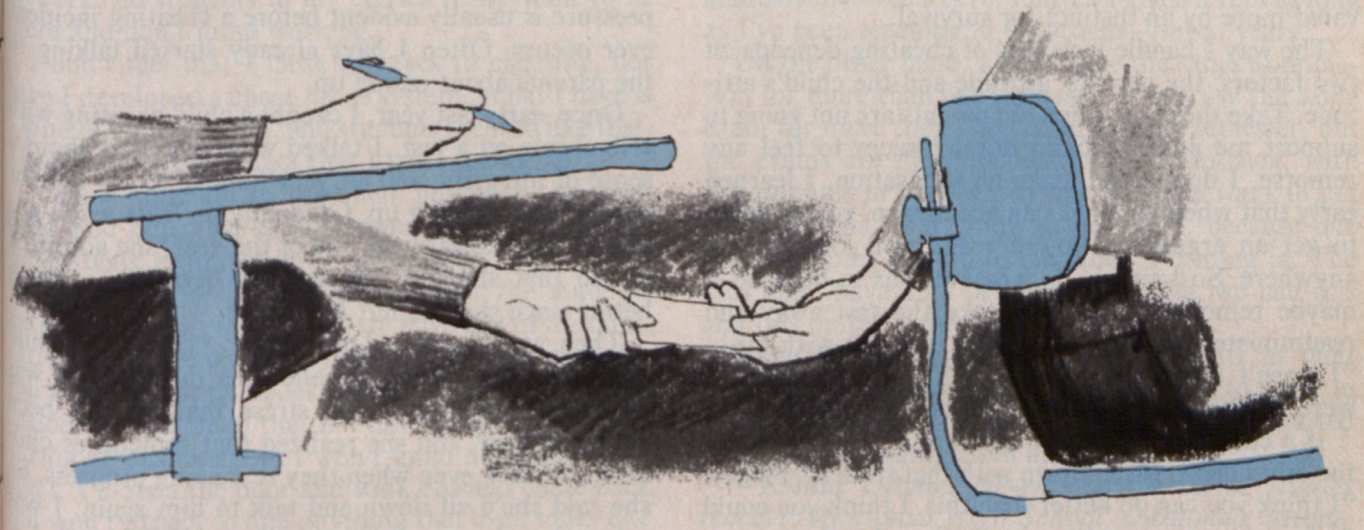
She said, "Now get your coat out of the cloak closet and go out and play." I dried my tears and went back

to the closet to get that old wet coat—it had been raining that mountain day in Kentucky—and I buried my face in it. I can still smell the wet wool. Into the coat I said, "Oh, I'll never cheat again—never." And I don't believe I have.

But you know, Miss Huff could have ruined me that day. She could have said, "Boys and girls, stop what you're doing right now. Can it be? O Lord, can it be yet again that we have somebody cheating in this room? Betty Fay, bring me your paper"—tearing it right up—"Let this be a lesson to us. I'm not going to have any more of this cheating."

I don't know what would have happened if Miss Huff had done that. Instead, she believed in me, and I lived up to her belief.

—**Betty L. Siegel,** *dean, School of Education and Psychology, Western Carolina University, Cullowhee, North Carolina.*



"MOST OF MY STUDENTS FEEL PRESSURE FROM HOME"

An Elementary School Teacher Speaks

In my fourth grade class of gifted students, cheating is not much of a problem. I usually have about 25 students, most of them in the upper-middle socioeconomic class.

Most of the cheating I see occurs on tests. It's very difficult for me to classify behavior in any other situation as cheating, because I stress cooperation. The children sit together, and I encourage them to learn from each other—to discuss things, to share ideas. So if two children are discussing a particular problem, it's almost always acceptable. Cheating really only shows up on tests and quizzes when I specifically say, "I want you to do your own work."

All I ever do to proctor a test carefully is spend plenty of time walking around. I encourage the children to keep their tests covered while they work, although the kind of tests I normally give don't have the kind of answers a child can easily copy off another paper anyway.

Many children have such a strong sense of honor that not only will they never cheat, but they won't allow cheating to occur in the room. Some of them will tell me it's going on; others go right to the source. It's remarkable the effect the children can have on one another.

Most of my students feel tremendous pressure to achieve, however. They show this in the anxiety they feel about assignments or tests. They compete not only with one another, but with themselves. Children who feel it necessary to cheat in order to be sure of top grades often would do fine without cheating. Sometimes they simply don't have enough confidence

in their ability to meet mom and dad's high expectations.

Simple realism also can cause pressure. Before I came to Burning Tree Elementary School two years ago, I had a class that contained maybe two groups of gifted children and one or two remedial reading groups, often containing children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. The main difference between the gifted and the remedial students' cheating was in motivation. The parents of many of the remedial students weren't in the picture at all, or there was only one parent. Very rarely were parents putting pressure on these children. Their cheating seemed to be motivated more by an instinct for survival.

The way I handle instances of cheating depends on two factors: the parents' attitude and the child's attitude. Take the cases when the parents are not going to support me and the child doesn't seem to feel any remorse. I don't even make an accusation. I learned early that when you make an accusation, you're going to get an argument; you're really not going to get anywhere. So I simply do whatever has to be done—maybe remove the child or take the test away and readminister it. If the child tries to argue with me—"I wasn't cheating"—I say, "Oh, I never said you were." Even discussing it would be pointless.

If a child has a sense of honor and self-esteem, on the other hand, I'll sit down with that student. I'll say, "I think you can do better than this. I think you could do fine on your own. I've always thought of you as an honest person, and I prefer to continue thinking of you that way. I hope that your actions will show me that I can continue to have this kind of faith in you."

Sometimes it works, and sometimes it doesn't. Often I can get through to a student the first time, and the incident never recurs.

I always keep a child's first cheating incident just between the child and me. If the parents are cooperative ones, I make clear to the child that if we can't solve the problem alone, we're going to have to involve mom and dad. And I stick to that. Few things are more difficult than calling parents and telling them you've caught their child cheating for the second time, but most of them appreciate it.

Parents know when their children are under pressure, and many of them will try to deal with it. In fact, pressure is usually evident before a cheating incident ever occurs. Often I have already started talking to the parents about easing up.

Once, early last year, I caught a child cheating with crib sheets on a test. I talked with the child about a sense of integrity, and all year I spoke to the mother simply about easing up. Gradually, in little ways, she did. Finally, toward the end of the year, she admitted to me that she felt her son had been doing much better since she had left him alone.

Then, at the very end of the year, I caught the child cheating again. When I called his mother, she was already familiar with the stress that he had been under all year, and she realized that sometimes children slip back even when they're making progress. So she said she'd sit down and talk to him again. I was relieved at the way this particular mother handled it, and I felt she did a good job.

—**Marilyn Schuman,** *fourth grade teacher, Burning Tree Elementary School, Bethesda, Maryland.*

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPILS REPORT ON CHEATING

Last winter when *Senior Weekly Reader* asked its readers some questions about cheating, nearly 7,000 sixth graders answered. Here (given in percentages) are their replies:

If you cheated on a test and everyone knew it, how many other students would criticize you? none: 14 one: 4 two: 14 three or more: 68

If you were taking a test and a stranger copied from your paper, how much would it bother you? not at all: 4 a little: 24 a lot: 72

If your good friend copied from your paper, how much would it bother you? not at all: 17 a little: 44 a lot: 39

Is there ever a good reason to cheat? no: 74 sometimes: 22 yes: 4

Can you think of a situation in which you were tempted to cheat but did not do so? yes: 46 no: 54

Many students, too, said that they had given in to the temptation to cheat, usually just to keep up with the class. Most of these students felt guilty about cheating.

Of the students who said they'd resisted a temptation to cheat, more were afraid of feeling guilty or of getting the wrong answer than of getting caught.

"TRUST THEM NOT TO CHEAT"

A High School Teacher Speaks

My eleventh grade social studies classes are elective, and everyone knows that my students have to work. So students in my classes really want to be there and don't mind working.

I don't feel that I close my eyes to cheating, nor have I developed a cheat-proof system. What I have is a kind of honor system, and students seem to like that. They appreciate the fact that I trust them.

I allow students to use their notebooks on both essay and objective examinations. I haven't given a closed-book examination in seven years. The examination is always difficult enough that the students have to study anyway. When we have our first examination, I tell the class, "It doesn't make any sense for you to have your notebooks open and to want to cheat besides." I tell them that if I have to go to the office during an examination, I won't mind doing it. And I don't. I'll open the door and walk out and come back and won't expect to find anything that even looks like cheating.

I let the class know, too, that if I think cheating is going on, I will just go to the grade book and give the students involved a zero. I haven't given a zero as long as I've been teaching in Owatonna—seven years.

On the other hand, I never give the same examination for more than one semester. I may use the same exam for more than one class the same semester, but the exams are nicely scheduled, back-to-back, with five minutes in between. If any students want to get the questions, it is going to be tough, because one group is going out while the other is coming in. The kids don't have a lot of time to say, Oh, we had this and this on the exam.

Some teachers have found that students in their first-hour classes are giving test questions to those in the sixth-hour classes, so those teachers have started changing the examination at noon.

—**Kermit Urbain,** *eleventh grade social studies teacher, Owatonna High School, Owatonna, Minnesota.*

HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' OPINIONS ON CHEATING

When a high school newspaper in an Eastern city asked students about cheating, it got the answers listed (by percentage) below:

Question	Yes	No
Have you ever cheated in any way on schoolwork?	84	16
Do you feel cheating is wrong or unethical?	78	22
Do you allow others to cheat off your paper?	50	50
Do you use cheat sheets?	19	81
Do you copy off others' papers during tests?	26	74
Do you copy homework?	37	63
Have you ever been caught cheating?	12	88
Would you turn in another student for cheating?	8	92
Do you feel guilty after having cheated?	43	57

The Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan included questions on cheating and competition in a nationwide survey of high school seniors in 1978. How would classmates feel if a student cheated on a test? Most would not care, said 75.2 percent; 16.6 percent thought classmates would dislike it; and another 4.3 percent, that they would dislike it very much.

Among the same students, 29.1 percent said there was little or no competition for grades at their school; 34.6 percent thought there was some; 26.6 percent, quite a bit; and 9.6 percent, a great deal.

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND CHEATING

A U.S. Teacher in Turkey Speaks

Is cheating cheating all over the world, or is cheating *cooperating*—either helping or receiving help—in some cultures?

As an idealistic beginning teacher on a Peace Corps assignment in Turkey from 1963 to 1965, I attempted the difficult balancing act of adhering to my host country's mores while at the same time upholding my American ideals.

Almost immediately, however, my ideal of students' doing their own work came into conflict with their communal attitude of being duty-bound to help one another.

During my first year in Turkey, I taught English in a large public junior high school in the southeastern part of the country. My students sat in tiered rows, three to a desk, about 60 to a class. In a seventh grade class, students ranged in age from 11 to 19, depending on how many years they had been held back. Certainly these were not the best of conditions for a beginning teacher.

I was frankly horrified at the cheating (or so I called it) perpetrated daily as my students continually exchanged information on their schoolwork, both verbal and written.

In my first letter home, on October 4, 1963, I voiced what was to become my litany: "My main problem is discipline. All my students want to talk at once. If one student doesn't know the answer to a question, all his friends answer at once for him." This was just the tip of the iceberg. Below the verbal helping, I was to discover a pervasive system of ways students had devised to help one another during exams.

In the teachers' room, I compared notes with my Turkish colleagues. "Yes," they'd agree, "maybe 50 percent cheat. Just give them a zero; that's all you can do." But no; I wanted morality to prevail. The Turkish teachers, I concluded, were mistaken in their attitude—and I was not the only Peace Corps volunteer in Turkey to crusade against the moral degeneration of youth by making it harder and harder for them to cheat.

We volunteers requested and received simple mimeograph machines from Peace Corps headquarters in Ankara. And on November 2, 1963, I wrote to my mother, "Tomorrow is Sunday, and I'll probably spend most of the day typing and mimeographing tests for my students." By making out three different exams—one for each of the boys in the three-student desks—I made cheating very inconvenient for them. I thought it worth the effort then; but, now that I look back on it, I wonder whether I was not unjustifiably trying to impose my national bias on students who were simply not as competitive about life as Americans are brought up to be.

After that year on the Anatolian Plateau, I moved to the eastern Black Sea coast. There I began to notice a difference in students' attitudes about cheating that tied in with the generally more reserved social atmosphere in that region. On November 16, 1964, I wrote: "Gave all my classes written examinations yesterday. Because our mimeograph machine was broken, I had to write the questions on the blackboard and was pleasantly amazed that no one tried to cheat. This is quite a switch from last year."

Seeing such cultural differences even within the same country made me begin to understand that various social milieus shape moral attitudes. I was forced to conclude that cheating is not cheating is not cheating all across the world.

—**Martha C. Christian,** *education writer, Washington, DC.*

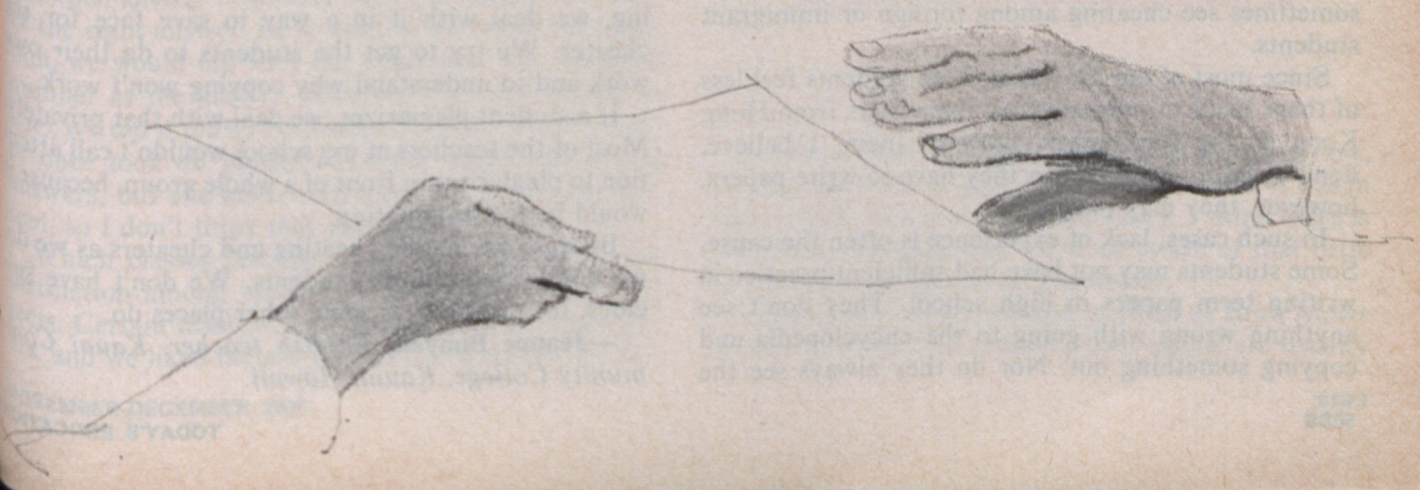
"THE STUDENTS KNOW WE ARE HERE TO HELP THEM"

A Community College Teacher Speaks

Cheating is something that people do because they are desperate or because they are uncertain of themselves or because they don't think of it as cheating—not because they are wicked. That's what I have always believed, and it certainly seems to be true at Kauai Community College in Hawaii.

Desperation is not much of a problem at Kauai. We don't have a heavily competitive, dog-eat-dog atmosphere, nor have we had any cheating scandals. Interchange between students and teachers is comfortable; the faculty doesn't suspect students of maintaining files of papers or exams or of buying term papers.

The College welcomes everybody; many of our students are in the first generation of their families to go



They don't see anything wrong with going to the encyclopedia and copying something out.

to college. We work with them where they are and don't put a lot of pressure on them. We are trying to help them succeed—perhaps more than some other colleges that put more emphasis on standards.

The students, for their part, know that we are there to help them and to get them through, so they are not trying to outwit us. On the Mainland (where I have also taught), in contrast, some students have the attitude "College is a system, and I have to beat the system. I am after the degree, and I don't care how I get it."

Our students don't have a sense of grievance against adults or against the establishment. They aren't completely virtuous, of course, but they are more tractable, less inclined to put things over on the teacher, than some students on the Mainland are.

Even though we don't put much pressure on students, some of them lack confidence, and we see some cheating. Students sometimes feel the pressure of competition; in addition, some cultural traditions incline students to copy or to help one another.

For different reasons, for example, many of our students who received their previous schooling abroad feel more pressure and are more competitive than those who grew up in Hawaii.

Many of the students from abroad are trying to get into a four-year university, so they want good grades. Their families have stressed achievement. On the other hand, many of the Filipino immigrant students, speaking Pilipino and Spanish, feel handicapped because their English is not as good as that of the other students, who have mostly come through school speaking English in Hawaii or Hong Kong. So we sometimes see cheating among foreign or immigrant students.

Since most of our Hawaiian-born students feel less of these kinds of pressure than their peers from Hong Kong or the Philippines, most of them, I believe, don't cheat on tests. When they have to write papers, however, they may plagiarize.

In such cases, lack of experience is often the cause. Some students may not have had sufficient practice in writing term papers in high school. They don't see anything wrong with going to the encyclopedia and copying something out. Nor do they always see the reason to give credit to their sources.

In some cases, however, the reason our local students cheat is cultural. Although they're Americans, many Hawaiian-born students come from a Chinese or Japanese tradition. In Asian cultures, particularly in the old days, copying was a way of learning; it wasn't thought ill of.

I saw another kind of cultural influence on cheating when I was teaching in Samoa in the 1960's. The Samoans don't have the same cultural taboo against cheating that we do. Much of their effort is communal, not individual. People are supposed to help each other. By urging our students to do their own work, we teachers were really imposing American values.

Because we recognized that we were dealing with a cultural difference, we didn't punish severely the behavior we considered to be cheating. If we thought the helping might get to be too much of a problem during a test (and those were usually objective tests), we would prepare two forms of the same exam.

Our students on Kauai who cheat aren't quite so innocent as the Samoans, but neither are they devious people or people who have worked out a system; they are just afraid of getting the wrong answer.

We rarely encounter a reaction that teachers elsewhere sometimes meet: students pretending that they haven't cheated and protesting wildly, "How could you think that of me?"

Most of the instructors at our college treat cheating in a way that seems appropriate for our students. First of all, along with teaching subject matter, we teach students our way of doing things—and part of that way is not to cheat. Then, if we see evidence of cheating, we deal with it in a way to save face for the cheater. We try to get the students to do their own work and to understand why copying won't work.

If a student plagiarizes, we deal with that privately. Most of the teachers at my school wouldn't call attention to plagiarism in front of a whole group, because it would be too humiliating.

Because we handle cheating and cheaters as we do, we don't have uptight students. We don't have suicides, for example, as some other places do.

—**Jeanne Bunyan,** *English teacher, Kauai Community College, Kauai, Hawaii.*

"IF I WERE TO CHEAT, I'D TURN MYSELF IN"

A College Student Speaks

I don't remember any cheating in elementary school; I think at that age we were so intimidated by the idea of getting into trouble that nobody would cheat. The cheating started in junior high.

By the time we were in high school, cheating was really the norm, even to me—and I considered myself one of the more law-abiding students.

The cheating was not a result of desperation, of students' feeling that it was their last chance in life, but an expression of not caring about the work or just of general dissatisfaction. It was even a little fashionable, just a thing to do.

I don't want to make it sound as if we always cheated. In my case, for example, if I realized someone I hardly knew was looking at my paper, I'd try to cover it up. But if a friend of mine asked me the answer to a question on a test, then just out of the simple adolescent desire for acceptance, I'd give in.

Homework was a different matter from tests. I was very jealous of my homework. I am aware now that my attitude toward copying homework came not simply from integrity but also from pride. If I did a piece of work, I didn't want someone else to take credit for it. I considered cheating dishonest, and I also felt pride in my own work.

In high school, the most common kind of cheating was simply looking at someone else's paper. Some students, however, had developed clever cheating systems.

In French class, I myself was involved in a cheating system, I am ashamed to say. We'd cheat in the oral sections on the tests, which were always the hardest. We had to try to understand what the tape was saying and then answer it quickly with the number or letter of the right answer. So as soon as we heard the question, we would tap with the finger that was the same number as the answer, counting from the thumb as *one*. We did it pretty nonchalantly. The French teacher once took off points when she caught me giving answers, but she never said anything about this system, so I don't think that she caught on to it.

Which classes had the most cheating? I see the distinction among teachers rather than among subjects. Certain teachers intimidated us more than others, and we liked certain teachers very much. We felt that certain teachers trusted us. And when a teacher was just vibrant and dynamic in general, we thought that was wonderful. We wouldn't cheat much in any of those teachers' classes.

The circumstances could make a difference, too. Sometimes the teachers would space out the desks, and I think that that sometimes worked.

When I was a freshman in college, I was invited back to high school to talk with the faculty about my impressions of the school. I mentioned cheating as a serious problem in high school.

A couple of teachers asked what I'd suggest they do when they caught someone cheating. One said, "What should I do, rip the paper up?"

I felt a little embarrassed and said something like "I really don't know." Today I probably would say "Yes, rip it up" more easily than I could then, when I was still closer to high school myself. Now I think that the teachers should be fairly severe about cheating—and consistent. They should have a basic policy and stick to it every time.

Competition for graduate school admission is intense, and some students become crazy with the pressure.

At Bryn Mawr College, where I'm studying now, the peer pressure is quite different from what it was in high school: It is pressure for honesty. I think there is very little cheating, and we're all aware of that little bit, because we take it very seriously.

Anyone who really wanted to cheat at Bryn Mawr certainly could. Our ordinary final exams are usually

self-scheduled. We can go for any of several exam periods and work in a room with people taking totally different exams. We are left on our honor, without a teacher monitor. Sometimes we have take-home exams, and they, too, offer a very tempting situation. Students could use books when they aren't supposed to or take more time than is allowed or take an exam problem to another student and say, "Oh, I'm doing a homework problem, could you help me?"

Pressure is a larger factor in cheating in college than it was in high school. Competition for graduate school admission is intense, and some students become crazy with the pressure.

At the same time, some withstand pressure without cheating. In our college community, for example, the honor system seems to work very well. Some professors probably just settle incidents of cheating individually, and no one hears anything about it. The professor goes to the student, and they decide together—perhaps on the professor's recommendation—to go to the Honor Board.

I don't know of many students' turning other students in. First of all, other students would be less aware of cheating than the professors would. Then, too, turning someone in would be very hard to do. I could turn myself in more easily than I could turn in someone else. From what I have heard, in fact, most of the students who come before the Honor Board have turned themselves in.

That isn't really surprising. I know that if I were to cheat, I'd turn myself in. It would not be just out of honesty, but out of ultimate selfishness. If I cheated and didn't turn myself in, it would live with me for the rest of my life. At Bryn Mawr there is a strong feeling of mutual trust, and to betray that would be betraying the community.

—**A College Senior,** *Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania.*

COLLEGE STUDENT BODY PRESIDENTS REPORT ON CHEATING

Cheating is no more of a problem today than it was four years ago, according to a survey of the student body presidents at 20 large public universities (institutions with at least 15,000 students). Eighteen of the presidents believe, in fact, that cheating may be on the decline.

Fifteen of these respondents explain that they think academic standards are somewhat lower than in the past and students feel less pressure. Only three said that current academic standards are too low, however. Most regard academic expectations as "fair" and "about right."

Eight of the 20 student body presidents admitted that they had cheated on "at least one examination" in college. Two of the eight said they cheated "on a regular basis," simply because "it is easy to do so." Sixteen said that at their institution cheating is not difficult and penalties are not severe enough to serve as a real deterrent. These students believe that professors need to employ greater vigilance in giving tests.

A majority of the survey participants believe that—

- There is much less cheating in upper-division courses than in lower-division courses because upper-division students are more deeply involved in their major academic areas.
- Most cheating takes place in large classes in colleges and universities.
- Students cheat more on minor quizzes that they feel are not important than on major examinations.
- Fewer and fewer students are willing to cheat on term papers, because plagiarism is often easy to detect and prove.

Seventeen of the 20 young people guessed that fewer than a third of the seniors at their institutions have cheated at one time or another.

All 20 of the student body presidents said cheating is much less prevalent in college than in high school, where many students have not established career objectives.

—**Gene A. Budig,** *president, West Virginia University, writing in the June 1979 issue of the* Phi Delta Kappan.

A CHEATING PROBLEM IN JAPAN

When the news broke at Waseda University, one of Japan's more prestigious institutions, the shock to those inside was almost unimaginable.

At a news conference, Waseda's president was so choked with emotion that he could barely speak. A fund-raising drive for the university's hundredth anniversary was postponed. Public apologies poured out, women staff members wept, and a dean resigned in the traditional Japanese way of accepting responsibility for a calamity.

The news was that entrance examinations for Waseda's school of commerce had been stolen, copied, and sold, complete with answers, for 10 million yen (about $40,200) each to overambitious parents desperate to see their children enrolled.

The widely publicized scandal provoked a new public debate over the high price of college admissions in Japan, a price usually measured not in money but in emotional strain, in family pressures, and often in student despair.

Social critics who have long deplored the system and advocated reform found the Waseda exam-peddling scandal an almost inevitable result of competition for admission to a leading college. Such admission is the key to success in Japan, and the pressures to pass entrance exams are intense.

The failure rate is high. Out of 22,777 hopefuls who took the Waseda commerce test recently, only 2,130 were accepted.

Applicants tolerate the pressures because the stakes are so high—for an ambitious person, perhaps the highest of a lifetime. Admission to a top college virtually guarantees lifetime employment at a good salary. Once admitted, students enter a leisurely academic routine. Few flunk out. Even before graduation, young people are recruited by the best companies. Barring some calamitous experience on the job, they get regular raises and promotions until retirement.

Because the entrance exam has such value, theft is not new. It is rare, however, for a widespread exam-selling scandal to hit a major university such as Waseda. Now unconfirmed reports hint at a broader conspiracy. Police reportedly suspect that a network of "brokers" was enlisted to sell the exam.

In other countries, the escapade might have been dismissed as the work of a few bad apples, but in Japan the whole institution must suffer. Waseda's president has apologized to the school's directors for a "dishonorable" incident that had soiled nearly a century of tradition.

—**William Chapman,** *writing in the* Washington Post *of March 23, 1980.*

HOW CAN SCHOOLS HELP REDUCE DECEPTION?

Educational institutions have a very large role to play....First of all, they...have to look to their own practices. How scrupulously honest are they in setting an example? How do they cope with cheating, with plagiarism, and with fraudulent research? What pressures encourage such behavior? To what extent, and in what disciplines, are deceptive techniques actually *taught* to students? What lines do law school courses, for instance, draw with respect to courtroom tactics, or business school courses with respect to bargaining and negotiation? Second, what can education bring to the training of students, in order that they may be more discerning, better able to cope with the various forms of duplicity that they will encounter in working life? Colleges and universities, as well as...many others need to consider how moral choice can best be studied and what standards can be expected, as well as upheld.

Throughout society...all would benefit if the incentive structure associated with deceit were changed: if the gains from deception were lowered, and honesty made more worthwhile even in the short run....

Deceptive practices are not immutable. In an imperfect world, they cannot be wiped out altogether; but surely they can be reduced and counteracted.... Trust and integrity are precious resources, easily squandered, hard to regain. They can thrive only on a foundation of respect for veracity.

—*From* Lying *by* **Sissela Bok,** *teacher of ethics and decision making, Harvard Medical School.* © *1978 by Sissela Bok. Reprinted by permission of Pantheon Books, a Division of Random House, Inc.*

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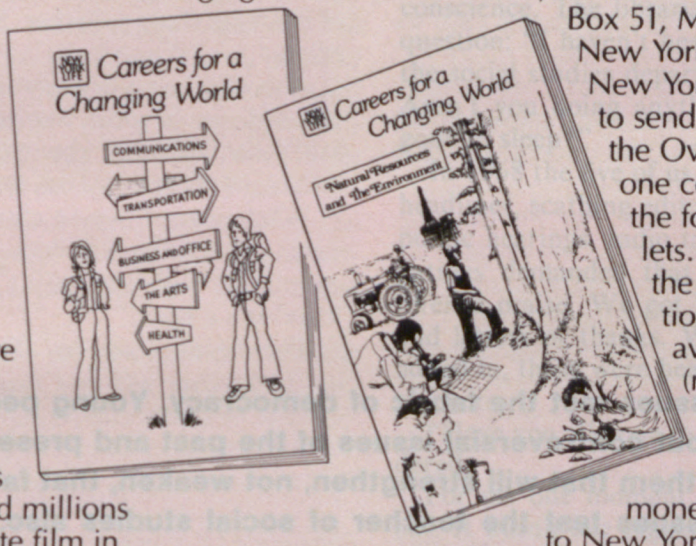
To help the nation's young people handle this decision, New York Life, working with educational experts, has prepared a public service program, "Careers for a Changing World." With the help of teachers and guidance counselors, this program has proven to be of great value in helping young people discover career opportunities open to them.

Since the program's inception in 1976, there has been enormous response to it throughout the United States. Over 900,000 booklets have been sent out; and millions have seen our 28-minute film in schools, civic meetings, or on local TV.



The "Careers for a Changing World" program includes:

1. An Overview Booklet. This takes a broad look at the problem of choosing a career, the expanding opportunities, and educational options open to students, plus a helpful list of current career information sources.
2. Fourteen Career Booklets. Each booklet includes occupational categories listed by the U.S. Office of Education. Available currently are: "Business and Office"; "The Arts"; "Health Care"; "Hospitality and Recreation"; "Transportation"; "Natural Resources and the Environment"; "Manufacturing"; "Construction"; "Communications and Media"; "Agribusiness "; "Marketing and Distribution"; "Public Service" and "Consumer Services and Homemaking." "Making the Most of Your Job Interview" contains helpful information on how to put your best foot forward when applying for work.
3. A 28-Minute Motion Picture entitled, "What Will I Do With My Time?" This 16mm color film features working people discussing their career choices and high school students discussing their own career hopes and doubts. The film is available to teachers on a free-loan basis. You should order at least three months before you plan to use the film. Orders should be addressed to: "Careers", New York Life Insurance Company, Box 51, Madison Square Station, New York, N.Y. 10010.

New York Life will be happy to send you–free–a copy of the Overview booklet and one copy of any or all of the fourteen career booklets. Just fill out and mail the coupon below. Additional booklets are available at 10¢ each (minimum order of 10). To purchase additional copies, send check or money order payable to New York Life Insurance Company. No cash please.

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CONTROVERSY IN THE SOCIA

Controversial issues test the fabric of democracy. Young people need to learn not only about controversial issues of the past and present but about ways of handling them that will strengthen, not weaken, that fabric.

Controversial issues test the teacher of social studies also. A teacher's lapse of judgment or a student's misinterpretation, carried to the community, can make the schools both an excuse and a target for attacks by partisans in political and social conflict.

How can social studies teachers handle controversial issues so that students learn lessons of humane and responsible citizenship? What can social studies teachers do to prevent external conflicts from dividing their classes and damaging their schools? *Today's Education* asked four teachers to address questions like these in discussing how they handle controversy in the classroom.

TUDIES CLASSROOM

RED ALERT!

Last time I strolled into our town's public library, what I checked out was not a book but a troubled conscience. The librarian gave it to me by asking a question: "I haven't heard a word about you guys in the social studies department for two or three years. Aren't you doing anything up there? Have you all gone to sleep?"

In 1968 the five of us were big news, the subject of headlines, scathing editorials, packed auditoriums for public hearings, radio talk shows. Some parent delegations demanded that I, at least, be fired; others offered praise. We got both threatening phone calls and letters of thanks. With Vietnam and Cambodia added in, those were heady times for us social studies teachers.

"Have you all gone to sleep?" I winced, and I wondered.

For me one moment of those heady times stands out. It wasn't our biggest controversy, but it was the most dangerous incident, one that deserved to be controversial. In my own mind its impact has been softened more by time than by rational argument. What happened was that 200 students thought they had only moments to live.

At 9 a.m. that day I was sitting toward the rear of the auditorium, where our large-group class in World Affairs met, wishing we'd planned something more conventional for the day. Guerrilla theater for half-awake, apathetic students? On a Monday morning at the height of senior slump? They would take it as only a farce, a mockery. But the plan was in motion. I knew that the three students on stage, who were talking of war and peace, were leading up to a song they wouldn't get to finish.

At 9:15 the voice of the assistant principal, who was one of the five of us, came over the PA system (to the auditorium only): "We have just received word from the superintendent," it said, in an authentic adminis-

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By DAN CONRAD
Social Studies Teacher, Eisenhower High School, Hopkins, Minnesota.

trative monotone, "that we may be in danger of an attack. We have no confirmation at this time but ask that everyone remain calm and in their rooms until we get back to you with further information."

A few kids looked around quizzically. Apparently not many had really listened. As I had expected, no one seemed to take it seriously. The students on stage proceeded.

Actually, students had planned the whole thing. They felt their colleagues were not taking world problems seriously enough, did not grasp the significance of nuclear armament. We teachers agreed.

One student had read about Orson Welles' *War of the Worlds* and thought an updated version might wake people up, give a taste of reality. No one would take it as real, he'd argued, but guerrilla theater was better than another lecture, at least. We'd said go ahead.

My main contribution had been to veto the proposal that bloodied, moaning students stumble down the aisle. The scenario bordered on farce as it was. I was still thinking that as the performance began.

At 9:20 we heard the second announcement: "Attention, please. Further word from Civil Defense and the superintendent's office indicates we are under Yellow Alert. Yellow Alert. Please secure all windows and doors and remain where you are. We will keep you informed."

Yellow Alert—that was good. I'd never heard of it. Neither had the students, and they looked skeptical, but they did seem to be a little more serious. Although the students on the stage had begun singing, a steady buzz of voices filled the auditorium.

Two minutes later came the final announcement: "Red Alert. Red Alert. We are facing immediate danger. People in the auditorium stay where you are. People on the third floor proceed immediately to. . . . People on the second, to. . . ." No sooner was the announcement completed than the lights went out.

A later survey showed that all 200 students in that auditorium believed they were facing imminent death. I heard emotional outbursts but no sign of physical panic. People called to their friends. The girls on stage tried to calm us with their song. Groups of students clung together. Some prayed aloud. Many cried.

Although some of the students just sat alone, most reached out in some way to comfort others or, they said later, to think about friends, parents, brothers, sisters, sweethearts. I sat stunned.

What seemed like an eternity later, two of the students opened the rear door. They saw others ambling calmly through the halls. They yelled back: "It's a hoax! It's a hoax!"

The lights went on. The climactic episode had lasted only three or four minutes.

Angry, confused, crying kids stormed out the doors. Some kept on running until they reached home.

The aftermath lasted longer—perhaps it's still going on. Angry, confused, crying kids stormed out the doors. Some kept on running until they reached home.

We had to do something. Twenty minutes later we called all those who remained in the school back to the auditorium. We apologized, explained as best we could, and listened.

Most of the students were angry and bitter: It was a cruel trick, they said. They'd been made fools of. Furthermore, they pointed out, the class might have panicked and trampled someone. A few students said

the experience had been good, a lesson in reality. I was still stunned.

Those apathetic looks had been masking an anxiety that could be inflamed more easily than we had guessed. That was our miscalculation. Later, in a formal reprimand, the superintendent and school board were to label the "activity" (what a word for it!) "ill-conceived, ill-planned, and executed with little regard to possible consequences. . . ." That judgment missed the educational point and ignored the existential one. The superintendent and board saw anger, uproar, hurt, and potential for lawsuit and reacted by censuring us.

We teachers had no such easy way out of it. At the end of the drama, we still had the kids—and ourselves—to deal with. A well-intentioned plan to awaken youth to a grim reality had succeeded too well. Or had it? The outcome would now depend on what we did to follow it up.

That night I studied Hadley Cantril's *The Invasion from Mars: A Study in the Psychology of Panic,* a report on the aftermath of the *War of the Worlds* panic. Amid calls from students, parents, fellow teachers, and reporters (the news was spreading), I prepared a questionnaire based on one that Cantril had used. Teachers and students needed to talk, to think together through the meaning of the event: Did you believe the announcement? Why? What did you do? What did you think about? Could a nuclear attack really happen that way? How did you feel afterward? Was there anything positive about the experience? Would it be good for others to have?

That piece of guerrilla theater was our World Affairs curriculum for the last month of the school year. The study was good, the only part of the incident about which we're not ambivalent. For that month our classes were alive, our discussions were personal and profound: war and peace, life and death, what has meaning to us, whom we care about and how we show it, tragedy and anguish, hope, responsibility, commitment, and yes, the ethics of sponsoring such a performance.

It's good to have faced the ultimate, to know what you would think and feel and do in the face of death. Before long the most upset seemed to be those who had missed class that day. They didn't know.

Our defense for sponsoring the Red Alert lies not in those few anguished moments in the auditorium but in our intent and in what we did later. The newspapers, the superintendent, and the school board ignored these, and each of the five of us who taught that course (including the assistant principal) has a reprimand and threat of dismissal ("any further lapse of judgment . . .") in the file to this day.

But the high school administration did *not* ignore our intent and our later work, and, more important, neither did the students. They did feel lingering pain and resentment as well as reflection. But, by the year's end, some 90 percent said it had been a positive experience "for them personally." On graduation night our students took over the podium en masse to tell their parents and the community how they felt. As one student put it: "This was the worst and the best educational experience I've ever had. I'll never forget it." My sentiments exactly.

That was nine years ago. Now the librarian was asking me, "Have you all gone to sleep?" I felt like

It's good to have faced the ultimate, to know what you would think and feel and do in the face of death.

apologizing. There's comfort in controversy: It forces you to examine and enunciate the worth of what you do.

When things are quiet, you have to think even harder, examine more deeply, believe more firmly, or you may drift into slumber. Perhaps teachers *not* embroiled in controversy should be required to either defend or apologize for that state of affairs.

There's comfort in controversy:

It forces you

to examine and enunciate

the worth of what you do.

I stifled my apology to the librarian. I had a defense. "We learned some things from our last controversy," I began, "not about staying out of trouble, but about our kids, about ourselves, about education. What we learned has changed our program.

"In the moments when the lights were out," I went on, "two things were clearly revealed. First, fears of war and death can be easily aroused; apathy is partly a defense. Second, in the moment of crisis, students are mostly concerned for the welfare of others.

"In the light of later discussion, we saw further implications. Our talk of war, the bomb, and holocaust left us angry and afraid, but it didn't seem to lead anywhere. We were aroused to action, but we could find little to do that would clearly make a difference. Talk of our concern for others, of love, of personal acts of peace and justice was more productive. We could act on these things, and our actions would make a noticeable difference."

I was warming to my topic. "For us it was a revolutionary insight, a new view of humanity and education. All around us we see pettiness, violence, greed, indifference, and selfishness. But when these kids faced life's ultimate moment, they found within themselves love, concern, desire for connection. Perhaps this is the core truth of human nature. The rest is conditional.

"Since the Red Alert, we have sought ways for kids to act on the best that is in them. We still talk about the big issues, but for us social studies must now include social action. This year in our community involvement program, for example, more than 200 seniors did volunteer work in the community. They gave more than 10,000 hours of work with older people, little kids, retarded persons, emotionally disturbed children, runaways, 'street people,' and one another. It's been the same for eight years. The kids are incredible. They just hadn't been asked before."

I paused for a moment. "We're still teaching about justice, love, and world peace, but somehow the newspapers haven't found our new methods to be controversial or even very interesting. We can't be blamed for that."

I rested my case, though somewhat uneasily. The difficulty now is to keep alive the connection between the personal and the political, between the personal acts of love and world peace and social justice. Do our students still see the larger purpose? Or are we beginning to doze just a little?

"Have you all gone to sleep?" A few days after I gave my reply, an errant military computer gave out a real false alarm. For a few horrifying minutes, the real nuclear machinery was in deadly motion. The error caused only minor public clamor—locally, much less than our own Red Alert. I thought about the librarian's question and about some lines from Saul Bellow's *Humboldt's Gift:*

The only real distinction at this dangerous moment in human history and cosmic development has nothing to do with medals and ribbons. Not to fall asleep is distinguished. Everything else is mere popcorn. □

HOW TO AVOID CONTROVERSY OVER CONTROVERSY

One of the most basic tenets of democracy—the right to speak freely without fear of censure—should be evident in the classroom at all times. Teachers need to be uninhibited by such fear when teaching controversial subjects or using controversial materials. Likewise, students need to feel free to grapple with problems; they need to learn to resolve conflicting opinions; and they need the freedom to select from among alternatives.

These skills can be developed in the classroom through the study of controversial issues. By studying in a neutral setting several issues on which viewpoints differ, students also learn to analyze problems and to distinguish between fact and fiction. The skills they develop through such probing are essential to them and to our society. A democracy cannot long survive censorship of its schools or teachers.

We should learn from history and from other cultures the dangers and the results of censorship. When a small group can force its views on an entire community, all suffer. Unfortunately, even in this country, teachers have been reassigned, even fired, because they dared to teach controversial issues or express controversial opinions.

Of course, criticism of poorly prepared lessons or materials on controversial issues is justified. But firing controversial teachers and banning controversial books are serious infringements of basic civil liberties. The banning in various places of such books as *The Catcher in the Rye, Of Mice and Men, Robin Hood,* or even the longtime classic *Magruder's Government* should sound an alarm to educators. (For a more detailed discussion of censorship of books, see the article "Censorship in the Schools: Something Old and Something New" elsewhere in this issue.)

Following are some topics that frequently cause concern to parents and problems for teachers:

- Sex
- Theory of evolution
- Racism
- Values
- Alcohol and drugs
- Economic systems
- Religious beliefs
- National allegiance and patriotism.

Not only sensitive issues, but sometimes teaching styles give rise to complaints. Some people, for example, feel that the inquiry approach (in contrast to the didactic approach) leads students to examine questions beyond their maturity level. Most complaints, however, center on materials used and issues presented.

One of the best ways to prevent problems is to prepare for them. Teachers who plan to explore potentially controversial subjects or materials in the classroom have a responsibility to ease the concerns of parents and to notify the administration about their plans.

The English Department of Warren Central High School has established the following guidelines:

- The teacher should be able to defend each book discussed, each idea presented, and each assignment given in class.
- The teacher should tell students about the content of each book and give those who don't want to read it the option of making another selection.

The Department has set up a procedure for handling any complaints that develop. It has also adopted several materials as guidelines, among them *The Students' Right To Read* and *Meeting Censorship in the School.*

The social studies curriculum affords ample opportunity for pursuing controversial issues. The Social Studies Department at Warren Central High follows the guidelines proposed by the National Council of Social Studies.

In addition to guidelines, the Council has published an excellent checklist ("The Controversial Materials Checklist"), which contains questions such as these:

- Are the students mature enough to handle the material (or issues)?

By **HERBERT KORRA**
Social Studies Teacher,
Warren Central High School, Indianapolis, Indiana.

- Does the material (or the issue) fit the course?
- Will the material (or the issue) increase the development of skills?
- Does the material clearly present both sides?
- How will the community react to the material or the topics?

Teachers should carefully consider such questions in selecting materials to use or issues to discuss.

After selecting materials and issues, teachers should tell their department heads and principals what they have chosen and why. Advance notification makes administrators aware of possible trouble. Then, if a complaint does develop, the administration won't be caught off guard.

The next step for the teacher is to notify the class that they will be studying a particular issue and using certain materials. When students misunderstand what a teacher is planning and consequently take home misinformation, problems are likely to develop. Here are several ways two teachers have prepared classes to use controversial materials:

One teacher begins the discussion of a subject by noting that it is controversial. He urges the class to demonstrate emotional maturity and be open to growth through the study of the topic. When appropriate, he holds an open-ended discussion—a collective search for truth.

The other teacher asks her students to write out their views on the issue anonymously, mentioning that she will make no attempt to influence their beliefs. After students state their views, the class discusses them. Whenever this teacher shows controversial films, she gives students the option of leaving the room, but few of them ever choose to do so. When this teacher selects outside speakers, she is careful to choose those with balanced viewpoints. If she detects biases in their presentations, she plans follow-up lessons that present other sides of the issues.

A prepared teacher, an informed administration, and advised students prevent most of the problems that can arise when controversial materials or issues enter the classroom.

A final important phase is the development of a policy for handling complaints. A good complaint policy can make the teacher feel secure when presenting controversial issues; at the same time it assures parents that their valid complaints will get an airing. Our school district is currently updating its policy for handling such complaints.

The school system should allow no foothold to individuals or groups wanting to censor the classroom teacher. A firm and fair policy for handling both would-be censors and those with valid complaints will provide fair protection for the teacher. The ultimate winner is the student. □

A DEBATE ON THE ARAB-ISRAELI QUESTION: Does Anybody Win?

The students were excited, sometimes emotional. Their interest in the topic of the debate was at a peak. Questions were sharp, and answers were heated. The debate continued for two hours stretched over three separate class periods. When it ended, I sensed a great feeling of accomplishment among the students. At the same time, however, I detected frustration and resentment among supporters of both sides.

The issue under debate had been the Arab-Israeli conflict from its inception to the present, which was then 1974. After that year's debate, I decided to try another approach to teaching about this controversial issue.

Each semester for the seven years up to 1974, my ninth grade students and I had organized a debate on the Arab-Israeli issue. Six or eight students would volunteer to form two teams of debaters, the pro-Arab and the pro-Israeli. The rest of the class, as the audience, would prepare questions to ask the debaters.

With my assistance, each team of debaters made its own contacts with the appropriate diplomatic missions and interest groups. The debaters searched in the library and elsewhere for resources which stated and interpreted facts that could support their side's views.

On the first day of debate, each of the two teams would make a brief presentation followed by rebuttals and refutations. On the second day, the rest of the class would ask questions of the teams. The debaters usually defended their positions well; sometimes, however, they were sarcastic or emotional. Occasionally we continued the debate to a third day.

It was certainly true that over the seven years, the students presented and defended the conflicting views honestly. The whole activity, however, often fell short of achieving the two objectives I intended for it: to acquaint the students with various aspects of the conflict and to help them understand the views of those involved in the conflict.

By MOUNIR A. FARAH
Master Teacher of Social Studies, Monroe (Connecticut) Public Schools; Coauthor of Insights: Middle East *and* Teacher's Guide, Global Insights: People and Cultures. *Charles Merrill, 1980.*

For one thing, each group of debaters presented its side as though everyone on that side took the same position. Even in 1974 this was an unrealistic impression of both the Arabs and the Israelis; it has become more unrealistic since then. The pro-Arab debaters ignored the differences of opinion that exist among Arab states and within each state. The pro-Israeli debaters overlooked the diversity of public opinion in Israel, which is especially marked with regard to the Israeli settlements, the future of the occupied territories, and Palestinian aspirations.

Also, being responsible for presenting and defending one side, each group unconsciously tended to become one-sided in its comprehension of the whole conflict. The debaters' main objective became winning the debate rather than understanding and presenting issues. The students actually went through a process of self-indoctrination. Finally, some of the students in the audience took sides on the basis of their personal relationships with the debaters rather than on the merits of the arguments.

Since that 1974 debate, a panel discussion on the Arab-Israeli conflict has evolved as a better alternative to a debate. The volunteers concentrate on problems rather than sides. Such topics as Jerusalem, Israeli settlements, the occupied territories, United States foreign policy, the security of Israel, and the aspirations and future of the Palestinians have become the focal points of their research and presentations.

The goal of a panelist is to explore the dimensions of one of these problems and to examine proposed solutions. His or her concern is to promote an understanding of these. My responsibility as the teacher is to assist the students in their formulation of questions, their research, and their presentations.

In doing the research on a problem, a student panelist studies both the available facts and the various opinions about them. Each panelist strives for understanding and for fairness in presentation. The other students' main concern is not to determine a winner or loser but to find out what happened and why, what solutions are possible, and what lessons the conflict offers. The result has been a fair and balanced exposition of the conflict in an atmosphere more relaxed than before. □

The students actually went through a process of self-indoctrination.

RUNNING WITH BIASES, BUILDING OBJECTIVITY

Inevitably, some of the issues we examine in my social studies classes are controversial. There hasn't been any controversy about my handling of them, however, for several reasons.

For one thing, I make sure that parents are able to follow what we are doing in class. I assign a good deal of homework, much of it in the form of essays, so the students have to look things up and come to conclusions. The families who are interested in their students read that material too and talk about it.

When I read the homework, I don't just correct English usage and help inculcate basic writing skills. I react to each essay in a narrative form at the bottom of the pages. All that goes back home. The parents can follow what's going on between the teacher and their child, so they don't get confused or suspicious.

I'm not a controversial figure in the community. I'm not an alien person coming with alien ideas. I come from a family of immigrants who settled here; I've brought up two boys; I've been a member of the American Legion; I'm involved in activities around town.

Finally, I make sure that we consider controversial issues fairly.

A controversial issue can come up in class any day. I teach Asian Studies, World Cultures, and Community, and I start every class in every subject with the news of the day. A student intern selects and reviews six or seven major items of national and international news and any local or state items of importance. That often provides the jumping-off point for the subject matter of that day's class, and it may be controversial.

In addition, the topics that we study themselves come into the news from time to time. The subject matter and the news fit together naturally and normally.

Let's suppose we've been talking about nuclear energy and therefore about the local nuclear power

By ALBA THOMPSON
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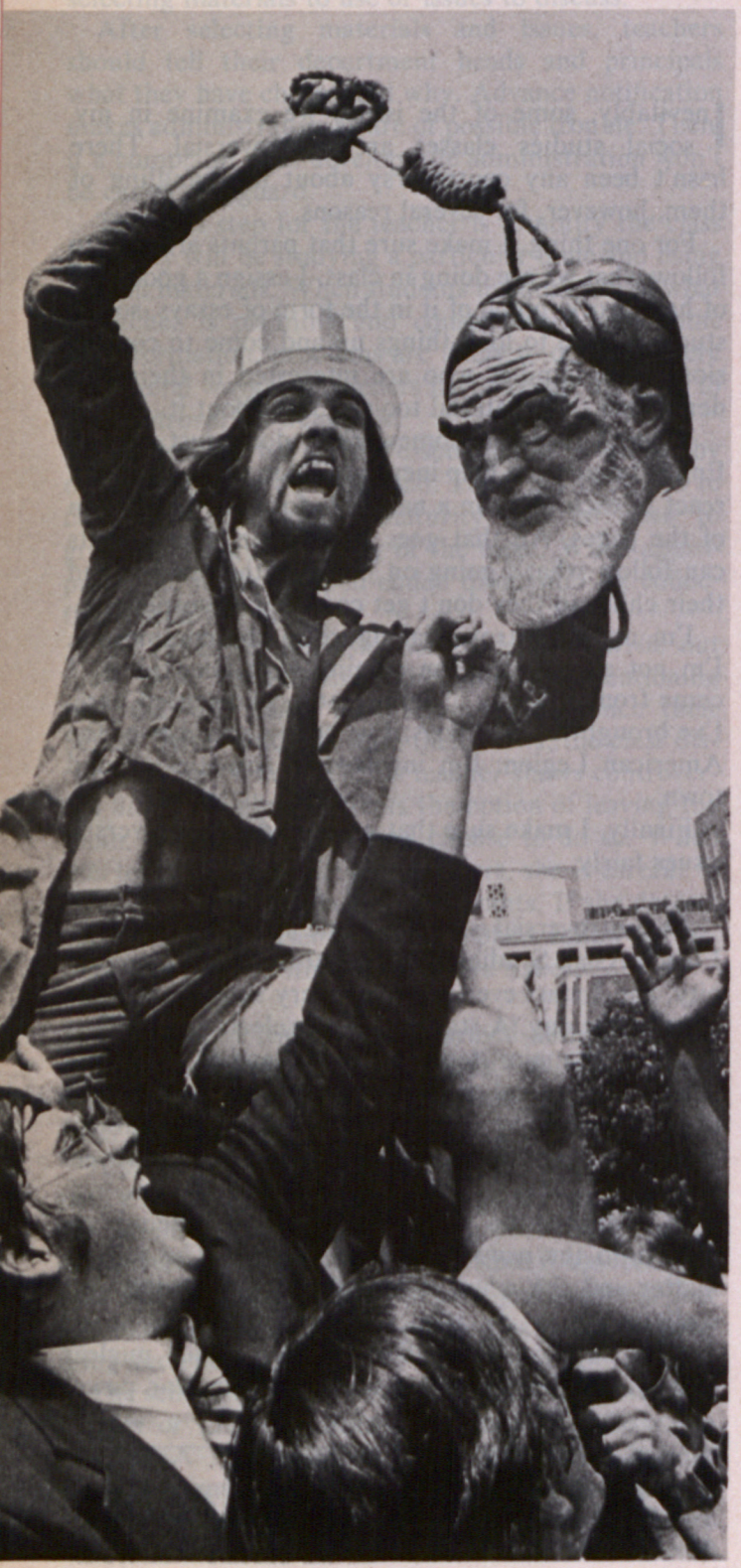

plant, Pilgrim I. The students can't escape the news that the fuel rods are being replenished, or some accident has occurred, or a crack is being fixed, or the workmen have gone on strike. With construction of the Pilgrim II plant scheduled to begin in 1981, the students read about rallies in opposition to that, too.

Some of the regular subject matter is inherently controversial. When the course is Asian Studies, or when we are in the Asiatic portion of World Cultures, for example, we can hardly avoid talking about World War II and the dropping of the atomic bomb.

I don't make the mistake of thinking that we are going to solve—or even discuss—all the problems of the world or even of the school in my classroom, and I don't deal with all the problems. But sometimes I can't avoid discussing a controversy that's outside the subject matter.

Let's suppose there has been a fight in the cafeteria and the youngsters come into class upset. Suppose a riot—for example, the one in Miami—has been in the news. We're going to deal with that fight along with the riot, because they're connected. People have felt reduced to such impotence or rage that they had to fight with their fists: What was the root of this?

Still, I limit the attention we give to issues that aren't in the subject matter. We won't deal with the fight and the riot ad infinitum, or with the fight as though it were a problem for our class to solve.

Although I feel that my classes must deal with the issues of our society, I'm also keenly aware that other teachers in the building also are dealing with the problems that come up in their classes. So I don't have to deal with problems that are more pertinent to other subjects. When a student brings one up, I say, "That's an awfully good question. Isn't it something your biology teacher has the depth and perception to deal with? If you explore that with her and give us a report on it, you may use that as extra credit."

Then, too, I always remember that I am teaching social studies. I have a responsibility to cover a certain body of material. It's not my function to be on crusades; it's my function to be a good social studies teacher and contribute to the development of those students.

One way we maintain balance is by getting news from many sources. The *Boston Globe*, the largest newspaper in this area, comes into my classroom

So I said, "There are a lot of hungry people out there. Suppose they came over and bombed us into oblivion and took our wheat?"

every day; so does the *Boston Herald American*. I contribute the *Christian Science Monitor*. We get *Newsweek*, too, and our local paper (which is ancient but good), the *Old Colony Memorial*.

When we are concentrating on an important issue, I make sure students get to know all sides. When we talk about nuclear power plants, we call on the Plymouth County Nuclear Group and the Clamshell Alliance and any number of agencies that have pertinent materials available.

Boston Edison, which owns and maintains the Pilgrim I plant, has a public relations department that turns out tons of material. We bring live people who represent all sides into the classroom and let them run with their biases. Finally, more objective material on nuclear energy comes off the presses all the time. Our public library has a whole roomful on the subject.

The students invariably bring many shades of opinion to class. Sometimes the middle view doesn't come through too clearly, while the two extremes come through very clearly. The students in the middle group are very important, so I encourage them to come forward with their ideas.

I recall graphically one class we had when the U.S. hostages were first taken in Iran and feelings were running very high. Three of the young men in class were ready to march, ready to bomb. Their classmates and I accepted that as a possible reaction but not necessarily a good one. I just said, "Now, would this be a good idea?" Then the other side came in very strongly.

The whole thing wound up with great good humor. One of the parting shots was, "Well, OK, if you feel like that, we'll put you in the lead plane and you go—but I'm not going." The point was made by the students, not by me, and that's what I always look for. In this case, by the end of the year those three boys were no longer going to war. They had discovered alternative possibilities.

When the oil squeeze got bad last year, one group of youngsters in another class wanted to bomb the Arabs into oblivion and take their oil. I waited; nothing came from the other side. So I said, "Now, let's make an analogy. We have a great deal of the world's wheat, and there are a lot of hungry people out there. Suppose they came over and bombed us into oblivion and took our wheat." Another point of view came out immediately after I asked the question.

It is very interesting to assign students essay questions—or something else that permits them to run with the facts they have available—to see where they are going as we work through a topic. For a while they swing rather widely to agree with the last speaker or writer. Toward the end, when they have learned more, they come back to a more balanced position of their own.

The students still often wind up with a whole spectrum of opinions, however. When we study about the decision to drop the atomic bomb, for example, some of them do their research—reading what President Truman said, what Edward Teller said, what all the experts said at the time the bomb was dropped and thereafter—and come to the conclusion that the bomb had to be dropped. Many decide after their research that U.S. intelligence was faulty and Japan was already prostrate, so we should never have dropped it.

Some say, "I don't know—I can line up six reasons on each side." (I encourage that response.) Almost all the students will agree, however: "I don't want any more nuclear bombs dropped."

The students do not question my personal objectivity in presenting the issues. After they've come to their own conclusions, they may ask me directly, "How do you feel about this?" Only then does it occur to them to wonder where I stand. I like that, because I think it indicates trust. They feel that I've presented them objectively with speakers, materials, experiences—that I have not led them to conclusions. They genuinely do not know where I stand until they ask me.

My students are alive to public issues, I think, as part of the maturation process taking place in them. At age 15, they are young men and women coming alive to their own potential and to the problems of the world. It's at this stage that they begin to realize how much the problems impinge on their own lives.

That's why high school is a very exciting place: Students are going to learn, because there's a great opening up going on in them. They may learn badly, or they may learn well, but they *will* learn, because they are becoming men and women and all of the huge problems of our society are already part of their lives. □

A few years ago, my students were using a Boston daily paper for a number of current events projects. During one of the lessons with the paper, one of my students suggested a new idea for using the newspaper as a teaching resource.

"I wonder what kind of stories newspapers in other parts of the country are printing today. Would they be about the same as Boston's?" The whole class seemed as interested as the girl who had asked the question. Well, why not find out?

I wondered what sixth graders would learn about cities across the nation by studying their newspapers instead of reading about them in a geography book or an encyclopedia. The more I thought about it, the more projects sprang to mind.

As the first step in starting a comparative newspaper study, I visited the reference section of a college library and found in *Ayer's Book of Publications* the names, addresses, and circulation figures of newspapers published in every state. I selected some from each state that seemed appropriate to my students' needs. Soon I had a list of 200 city dailies with a circulation of more than 100,000.

After learning the proper form for business letters, the class wrote to as many of the newspaper publishers as possible, requesting a copy of the paper for a set date in the future. The students offered to pay for the issues.

As we waited for results, I had no idea what to expect. I wasn't sure whether the newspapers would deluge us with bills or whether they would even respond. The class was optimistic about receiving at least some answers, so we enthusiastically continued our preparations.

This project does require some good preparation. Students—especially those in elementary classes—need guidance on how to read a newspaper, what its various sections are, and how it's put together. Working with a popular daily delivered once a week for a few months is usually sufficient preparation for students to enjoy a comparative study.

My class, therefore, continued to practice the skills of reading and comprehending different kinds of news articles. They examined the differences in local, national, and international news coverage, while at the same time developing an awareness of current events. They studied editorials, columns, advertisements, and the various components of a news article. They made collections of photos and political cartoons and related them to events in the news. They became familiar with the different sections of a newspaper and how to use the index.

Within a few days after the issue date we had requested, the newspapers started to arrive. Personal letters to the students accompanied a few papers, with additional material about the city or state. Within two weeks, we had received 47 newspapers, 44 gratis. Student motivation was high because the newspapers had responded to their requests. Each time I have repeated this unit (three other times in as many years), the response has been the same.

Our first step was to arrange the papers alphabetically and number them consecutively, writing each paper's number on its front page. I then gave each student a list of the newspapers arranged and numbered in alphabetical order, with space for taking notes. These lists proved useful for jotting down observations about specific papers.

We began to examine the front pages by laying all the papers on desk tops and floor. The class had four questions to think about in analyzing front pages:

- Are front page photos used to grab attention and/or to supply information?
- What does the paper's index reflect about variety of coverage?
- What kind of news dominates the front page—local, national, or international?
- How do different newspapers treat the same story?

With lists in hand, students moved from desk to desk, jotting down observations. Then they compared and contrasted their notes. They held up certain papers to clarify, substantiate, and exemplify their findings. This activity familiarized the class in a general way with all the papers. Then we went on to specific activities.

In subsequent years I have repeated this activity, and my students have benefitted from a variety of projects with newspapers.

During comparative analysis projects, my students study advertising, photographs, and editorials. In groups, each responsible for a certain number of papers, the class examines advertisements, judging each to be honest or dishonest on the basis of whether it contains misleading text or fine print.

By PETER L. HILDEBRAND
Sixth Grade Teacher, Paul P. Gates Elementary School, Acton, Massachusetts.

or simply provides too little information.

Similarly, students enjoy evaluating news photos according to whether they use sensationalism to capture attention. They also attempt to select a "best" news photo based on how informative it is, how representative it is of the story, and how attention-getting it is without being offensive or sensational. These criteria involve value judgments and provide important motivation for discussion.

Students also like to select editorials they think interesting enough for class discussion. Some of them—on capital punishment, gun control, and equal rights, for example—usually stimulate the class beyond discussion to written composition.

One activity quite popular with students is to study the obituary columns. Working in groups, students categorize the deceased by sex, age, occupation, and survivors.

Students are amazed that people die by the hundreds every day. And from natural causes! From the data they gather, they try to draw conclusions, but their discussion soon reveals that certain of their findings are very limited. For example, the students' analysis may show that most people who are listed on the obituary pages for a certain date work for companies or corporations. Does that mean more corporation or company employees than other types of employees died within the country on that particular date? Of course not. The relatively small number of papers used and the lack of occupation given in some obituaries are among the variables that affect such a conclusion. From this activity children can learn about how misleading firsthand research can be unless those who do it think about the variables that affect accuracy.

Another activity students enjoy is an investigation of the cost of living in different parts of the country. By examining advertisements for consumer goods, they find obvious variations in the costs of foods, furniture, and housing. Of course, I point out to them that some price differences reflect differences in quality. In their class presentation on product costs, therefore, they are responsible for determining whether quality might be a factor in price differences.

Students who work on this project always come to the conclusion that the Eastern part of the country is more expensive to live in than many other areas. Although this finding is old-hat to most adults, it can be a revelation for children.

Another activity is a comparison of story items in the local news section of all the newspapers: crime, the economy, education, and political events. The students list the story titles in each category for each city and try to determine each city's major concerns. By this time, of course, students are usually sophisticated enough to realize that such findings might not accurately reflect the long-term character of the cities because their data base is only one day's news. Such a collection of news topics at least answers the original question that started my class off on their analysis of various newspapers: whether other cities had the same kind of news as Boston.

By the end of a project, the newspapers will be rather worn, torn, and ragged, but the class can put them to a final use. Collages for the bulletin board are both fun to make and thought-provoking: I put groups of two or three students to work cutting out anything on a chosen theme: the most misleading advertisements, the weather, local people of the different cities, favorite news photos, political cartoons, headlines, and sports events. I then have them arrange the most interesting clippings in patterns that are visually exciting and paste them on colorful construction paper.

Individualizing these activities for children who are slow readers is not difficult. Since most of the work is done in groups, a teacher can easily give slow readers assignments commensurate with their capabilities without making them feel left out. They can analyze photos, advertisements, or political cartoons. In this way, they can make a genuine contribution to the project.

The brightest students can tackle the jobs of analyzing editorials, collating and drawing conclusions from information contributed by the rest of the class, and making presentations that compare and contrast different newspapers.

My experiences with this comparative newspaper unit indicate that as part of a social studies curriculum, it not only brings the newspaper alive for students as a source of information and entertainment, but it teaches them a great deal about other parts of the country, the government, the economy, and human nature.

In the course of this unit, students usually improve their reading and other language skills. Reading the newspapers, writing up their findings, and giving verbal reports provide constant practice in the language arts.

By analyzing newspapers published on the same date, some of which come to students from thousands of miles away, social studies takes on new life. Newspapers teach it all. □

NEWSPAPERS TEACH IT ALL

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A Survivor's handbook for Parents

by Peter H. Buntman, M.S.W., ACSW
and Eleanor M. Saris, M.Ed.

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How To Live With Your Teenager – A Survivor's Handbook for Parents will help you live with your teenager as amicably and as harmoniously as possible.

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 18

The NEA Pushes for Equity in Social Security Benefits

It is time to face the reality of the 1980's. The Social Security system is at a crossroads. It has reached middle age—it is having a mid-life crisis. The reality is that the poorest person in our country is an elderly female 65 years of age or older. The reality is that the median income for an elderly woman is $2,800 per year. The reality is that the Social Security system affects 95 of 100 Americans. . . . The reality is that it is no longer a question of whether the Social Security system cheats American women; it is a fact! The reality is that there should be no more important domestic issue facing this Administration and Congress than discrimination against women in the Social Security system.

—**Rep. Mary Rose Oakar** *(D-Ohio), member, Select Committee on Aging, U.S. House of Representatives.*

The treatment of women under the Social Security system has been a major political and legislative issue for more than a decade. After some years of discussion, the Social Security Amendments of 1977 (Public Law 95-216) directed the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to conduct a two-year study of the problem and report its recommendations to Congress. Concurrently, the Advisory Council on Social Security appointed by the President began a study of women's issues and the House Select Committee on Aging began a lengthy series of hearings on the topic.

Their findings were basically identical—that since the inception of Social Security in 1935, American society has changed, and the system has not been adapted to reflect these changes.

Social Security was designed to serve the society of the early 1930's. It was based on four assumptions: that women are usually homemakers, that men provide income for the family, that housework a wife performs has no economic value, and that marriages last for life.

In 1975, the NEA Representative Assembly noted that these assumptions were no longer valid and directed the Association to lobby for the passage of legislation that would ensure equity for men and women in Social Security benefits. Since that time, NEA has monitored the activities of study groups on Social Security and testified on the specific concerns of teachers before Congressional committees and task forces mandated by Congress.

Since enactment of the 1977 legislation, probing of the various study groups has revealed a staggering range of inequities in Social Security. Following are some of the problem areas universally recognized as needing remedial action by Congress.

1. The Social Security system is designed to partially replace income lost upon retirement, disability, or death. Yet the system often violates that principle in the case of two-earner families, because it considers only the income of the major wage earner instead of treating the family as an economic unit.

2. If a female spouse earns 40 quarters of coverage as a worker, she is entitled to benefits based on her work record. If, however, the amount she would receive as a dependent is greater than the amount she has earned herself, she will receive only the greater amount. She will not receive the benefit she earned and paid tax on.

3. A widow will receive full benefits from her husband's earnings only when she reaches age 65.

4. The program was designed to provide a floor of benefits which pension plans and annuities would supplement. But Congress voted in 1977 that the old-age spouse's benefit a person receives will be reduced dollar-for-dollar by the amount of any federal, state, or local pension which that person receives based on his or her own government employment not covered by Social Security. No such pension offset applies to individuals who worked in the private or nonprofit sector.

5. A divorced person has no Social Security protection based on a marriage if it lasted less than 10 years.

6. A divorced mother is ineligible for dependent's benefits during the early child-raising years.

7. A homemaker who becomes disabled is not entitled to benefits even though she may be unable to perform her job.

8. A woman is not entitled to disability benefits if she has been out of the work force for more than five years before becoming disabled.

9. The system does not provide benefits for widows or widowers under age 50.

10. Significant disparities arise between married and unmarried women workers. Married women workers frequently spend time out of the paid labor force (or work part time) to perform homemaking or childcare activities, and when they work for pay, they generally earn substantially less money than men. The result is low Social Security benefits for this increasingly large segment of the work force.

Although the Ninety-Sixth Congress has held extensive hearings on women's issues in Social Security, its major activity affecting Social Security has been focused on shoring up the system's financial base—mainly by allowing the transfer of surpluses from one trust fund to another. The next major step in resolving inequities is expected to occur in an omnibus reform package due for consideration in 1981-82. The Ninety-Seventh Congress will consider findings of the study groups and Congressional committees, along with testimony from current and projected public hearings in the District of Columbia and throughout the country.

It appears likely that Congress will debate two major options when it addresses inequities in the benefit structure: (1) an *earnings sharing* plan, under which 50 percent of the total annual earnings of a couple would be credited to each spouse's individual earnings record, and (2) a *double-decker* plan, providing a flat-dollar benefit available to everyone plus an earnings-related benefit payable on the basis of earnings from employment covered by Social Security.

These broad-based remedies are complex, controversial, and difficult to assess in terms of future funding needs. The Social Security Administration estimates that the long-range (75-year) cost of the earnings-sharing option comes very close to approximat-

(Continued on page 70)

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Social Security
(continued)

ing long-range costs under current law. The long-range costs of the double-decker plan are highly dependent on how the benefits are adjusted to keep pace with rising wages or prices. In either case, a substantial portion of current law would have to be rewritten in order to accommodate the demands of major changes in the philosophical basis of Social Security, to close gaps in coverage for certain groups, and to ensure that adequate benefit levels are maintained without steep escalation of the tax rates that finance them.

The accompanying box gives the current NEA resolution on Social Security. The Association will continue its study and appraisal of Social Security in relation to new developments in teacher retirement plans.

—**David H. Foerster,** *NEA Government Relations.*

NEA Resolution on Social Security

The National Education Association believes that Social Security should be available to eligible teachers where desired, but shall not be mandated. Contracts with Social Security should provide for supplementary plans rather than integrated or coordinated plans.

The Association also believes that teachers who are presently covered under Social Security should strive to remain in the program. It insists on a referendum that would require a majority of affirmative votes of those eligible to vote before a governmental agency files notice to withdraw from the program. If the employee organization votes against withdrawal, cooperative educational and legislative campaigns to forestall withdrawal should be organized and coordinated with other public employee groups.

The Association urges the reform of Social Security laws to eliminate offset provisions that are discriminatory and discrimination based on sex, marital status, or time of retirement and to reduce the retirement age. No benefit promised or no benefit for which money has been collected should be withdrawn without adequate replacement.

The Association further believes that Social Security retirement and survivor benefits should be based upon the Social Security program and Social Security taxes. Health and disability programs should be removed from the Social Security program and financed from general tax revenues.

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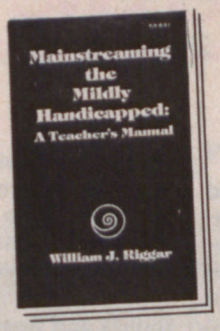

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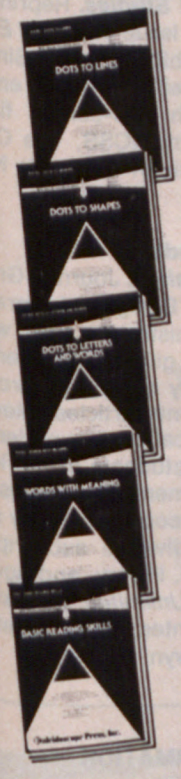

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Graphs

Graph Paper from Your Copier. John S. Craver. Features 181 reproducible graphs, eight reproducible data collection and scheduling forms, and 15 reproducible geographic distribution maps. Includes introductory text that describes various kinds of graphs, discusses how to use them, and illustrates how to draw them. 1980. 232 pp. $12.95. HPBooks, P.O. Box 5367, Tucson, AZ 85703.

Human Relations

Human Relations: A Guide for Leadership Training in the Public Schools. Report on a cooperative effort of the Community Relations Service of the U.S. Department of Justice and the Syracuse, New York, City School District to create greater sensitivity to racial and cultural differences. Includes examples of training exercises. Stock No. 027-000-00940-9. 1980. 30 pp. Single copies, free. Community Relations Service, U.S. Dept. of Justice, Washington, DC 20530. Additional copies, $2 each. Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

Mainstreaming

Mainstreaming in the Social Studies. Edited by John G. Herlihy and Myra T. Herlihy. Designed to give social studies teachers practical help in mainstreaming students. Defines mainstreaming and discusses why it is necessary. Includes coverage of systems to implement mainstreaming, individualization of instruction, modes of instruction, organization and presentation of social studies content in a mainstreamed class, ideas from the field, effective in-service education, and community involvement. Provides resource list. 1980. 96 pp. $6.25. Natl. Council for the Social Studies, 3615 Wisconsin Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20016.

Rights and Responsibilities

The following publications are available from the Center for Peace and Conflict Studies, Wayne State Univ., 5229 Cass Ave., Detroit 48202. Both include the United Nations Declaration of the Rights of the Child.

The Declaration of the Rights of the Child and the Child's Declaration of Rights and Responsibilities. Edited by Marion Edman and Lillian Genser. Booklet. Paraphrases the United Nations' 1959 Declaration. Designed to make the Declaration more meaningful for students by describing the responsibilities entailed by each right and by asking thoughtful questions about each point. Fourth through seventh grade levels. 1979. 15 pp. $1.50.

People Have Rights! They Have Responsibilities, Too. A Study Guide for the Universal Declaration of Human Rights for the Use of Young Citizens. Edited by Marion Edman and Lillian Genser. Retells the Universal Declaration in simple, familiar language. Provides a historical introduction that explains the steps that led to the 1948 adoption of the Declaration.

Sex Education

Schools and Parents—Partners in Sex Education. Sol Gordon and Irving R. Dickman. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 581. Discusses the status of sex education in the public schools and public and parental support for it. Describes specific school programs and the making of a good program. Includes model curriculum (kindergarten through high school) that outlines topics and concepts for family-life education programs. 1980. 28 pp. 50¢ (quantity discounts available). Public Affairs Pamphlets, 381 Park Ave. So., New York 10016.

Social Studies Books

Improving the Use of Social Studies Textbooks. Edited by William E. Patton. Designed to show how to update dated textbooks, strengthen reading comprehension, study pictures, correct ethnic and sex stereotypes, and evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of today's textbooks. Provides, in several chapters, Springboard Lessons that answer four questions: What is the nature of the problem in the textbook? What purpose will be accomplished by its solution or correction? How will the solution or correction be carried out with students? Where can additional information be found to help in planning and implementing the lessons? Includes special bibliography to encourage additional study and research. 1980. 80 pp. $6.95. Natl. Council for the Social Studies, 3615 Wisconsin Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20016.

Notable Children's Trade Books in the Field of Social Studies. Reprinted from the April 1980 issue of *Social Education.* Annotated bibliography. Single copies, free (with self-addressed envelope stamped with two-ounce, first-class postage). Attn: NCSS, The Children's Book Council, 67 Irving Pl., New York 10003.

Special-Needs Students

Education Unlimited. Journal. Grace J. Warfield, editor. Designed for practitioners and administrators who work with handicapped, gifted, and talented students from early childhood through adult years. Presents articles relevant to improving educational experiences for special-needs students in the least restrictive environment. Five issues per year. Examination copy, $3; yearly subscription, $15 (individual subscription price); $20 (school, library, and agency price). *Education Unlimited*, Educational Resources Center, 1834 Meetinghouse Rd., Boothwyn, PA 19061.

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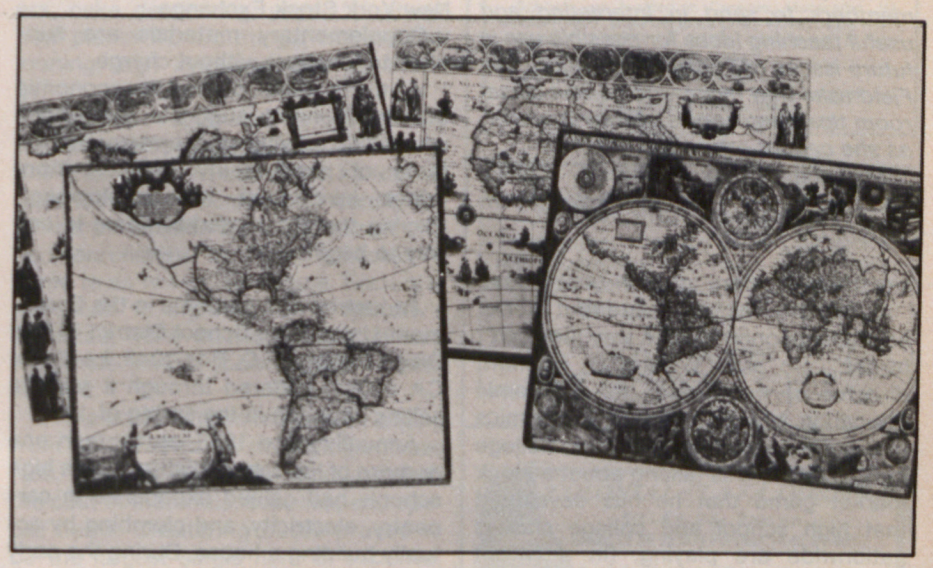

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Classroom Tips

These are suggestions made or collected by Ms. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas for possible use in future issues of Today's Education. *Ms. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.*

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, *1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

"Three-quarters of our teams lose money. But they find out about capitalist economics in a way they can't forget." So says William B. Bennett, director of the Center for Economic Education and professor of economics at State University of New York, College at Buffalo. He was talking about a stock market game that he has developed that high school and college classes nationwide are playing. (In a recent statewide competition, Texas had 1,000 teams.)

To play the game, team members read the financial news, business magazines, and other sources of economic information. After due deliberation, they decide what stocks to "buy" or "sell" for their teams and send the details of these "transactions" to Bennett, who feeds them into a computer.

Bennett, with the help of his computer, sends each team a weekly report of the values of its stocks along with its ranking in the state competition. The team that makes the most money during a 10-week period wins.

New York schools are divided into five regions for this game. In each region, businesses donate money prizes. The statewide winner collects $250 and a trophy.

Although most teams lose, one young man's ersatz stocks climbed to a worth of more than $1 million because he had added together certain economic factors and decided that they meant Buy coal! Since then, he has invested real money in coal on the real stock market. He is making enough for his college expenses.

An instruction kit for the game costs $5. In addition to instructions, it includes transaction cards, a sample annual report, reference numbers, and code numbers of common stocks on the New York Stock Exchange.

Supplementary materials are supplied to teachers without charge.

In these days of erratic economic activity, Bennett suggests that those who would survive must understand the facts of productivity, consumption, prices, investment, and employment. Playing the stock market game is one way to begin.

Industrial arts students in the Grossmont Union High School District in San Diego County (P.O. Box 1043, La Mesa, CA 92041) suffered through a real-life selling situation in the spring of 1979.

Annually since 1958, students in one or more of the school district's nine high schools had gained experience in carpentry, electricity, and plumbing by actually building a house. During the early years of the house construction projects, the students built houses on school property on "I" beams, which made it possible to remove the houses later to buyers' sites. After 1975, however, students constructed houses on off-campus residential lots that the school district bought.

The director of the construction and training program, classroom teacher Calvin Bornholdt, is also a licensed homebuilding contractor. In addition, other professionals in the trades have been very generous in helping the student builders meet building codes and maintain high standards in general. Financial institutions have also helped, by granting interest-free loans for the projects.

Students designed the houses. After drawing the plans, they submitted them to members of the American Institute of Architects and the Building Contractors Association, who selected the ones to be built. The 1979 selection was a split-level, 162-square-meters house with three bedrooms, two-and-a-half baths, and a fireplace. Working in three-hour shifts, 45 students from three high schools did practically all the work, including buying and laying the carpeting.

The early homes sold for as little as $8,000 (not including the cost of land). Prospective buyers considered them prizes and stood in line to get them. For the 1979 house, however, inflated costs made it necessary for the school district to get a minimum of $89,950 in order to repay the bank loan. Prospective buyers were to place their bids at the monthly school board meeting, but two meetings came and went without a single bid. After a local newspaper published a short story about this surprising happening, however, the house sold at the next board meeting for $99,000.

Many students gained enough experience from these house construction projects to obtain jobs in the building trades immediately after finishing high school.

"The 1980 program was unique," says Bob Brady, principal of Santana High School, which serves as the center for the project. "The students built a combination student store and classroom building on the campus of Santana High, using funds from the school district and from their own Associated Student Body organization. At this site they will continue combining real-life experiences and schoolwork."

A very large puzzle is why schools do not give more attention to outstanding women of the past and present. Even the physicist Marie Curie is almost unknown to today's youngsters.

This gap was brought to the attention of Barbara Multerer, a reading teacher in the Buffalo (New York) Public Schools when she and her assistant, Hattie Griffin, planned a display for the entrance foyer of their elementary school. After deciding on "Famous American Women" as the subject, Ms. Multerer asked a class whom they wished to honor.

Right away someone suggested Betsy Ross. Then silence fell. Ms. Multerer urged the class to think of some others. Finally one child ventured, "Well, Ms. Multerer, there just aren't some."

The students began searching and soon found that history books and other sources mention repeatedly the same few famous American women: Molly Pitcher, Dolley Madison, Harriet Tubman, Susan B. Anthony, Helen Keller. The students themselves listed other "greats": Coretta King, Billie Jean King, Elizabeth Blackwell. They were happy to find Maria Tallchief and Buffy St. Marie to go with Pocahontas and Sacajawea.

Social studies classes could do worse than to track down some historic Ameri-

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

can women and their contributions to society. They can look through textbook indexes, for starters. How many women are listed there? Are any mentioned in connection with military action?

Students can also hunt up answers to some provocative questions: What did Harriet Beecher Stowe and Harriet Tubman have in common besides first names? What woman author was a crusader in the halls of Congress on behalf of the rights of American Indians? How many female Senators have we had? Governors? Members of the House of Representatives? Ambassadors? Who was the first American woman writer of note? Who wrote the words that appear on the Statue of Liberty, and what else did she do? What American women have won Nobel prizes? What American woman was the first to survive a plunge over Niagara Falls in a barrel?

Finally, students can list female editors, composers, painters, college presidents.

Ms. Multerer's project was successful and appreciated. Her next one will be to honor female leaders in her school's community, and there's a good idea, too.

The emphasis may still be on the basics, which to too many people means narrow academics. There is still, however, an exciting, wonderful world around us for youngsters to be prepared for, if only by occasional forays out to sample it.

For the last two years, Templeton Middle School in Sussex, Wisconsin, has arranged for such a sampling by setting up an elaborate Discovery Day.

On the chosen day (an alternate date was named in case of rain), and with much help from the community, the students abandoned their customary academic fare in favor of a menu of 150 mini-courses. Some of the courses lasted all day—golfing, hiking, canoeing, fishing, stamp collecting, outdoor cooking, nature study. Other courses lasted for only half a day—archery and hunter safety, crocheting for lefties, racquetball, quilting, macrame, bowling, biking, flying in an airplane, sketching at the zoo.

Among the hour-long courses (a majority) were those teaching the techniques of wet and dry fly fishing, cribbage, beginning stitchery, backgammon, caricature drawing, needlepoint, disco dancing, making corn husk flowers, cake decorating, yoga, "pirating" new plants from cuttings, hot air ballooning, sign language, and psychology.

Students registered for Discovery Day eight weeks ahead of time. Everyone was given an elaborate handbook describing the courses and containing parent permission slips. Organizers limited enrollment in many classes, in some to as few as 10 people. Each student had to sign up for a full day's schedule; none of this, "You can skip the whole thing if you're not enthusiastic" bit.

Some courses required a fee, ranging from 50 cents to $4 (for flying). These fees, paid during registration, covered the cost of materials, supplies, and special items. Chartering buses proved to be the largest single item of expense. Local civic groups covered it the first year; the sale of Templeton Discovery Day T-shirts, the second.

For further information about the successes and problems of exciting Discovery Day, write to Joan Vehlow or Nancy Leubke, both of whom were instrumental in making it happen, at Templeton Middle School, N59 W22490 Silver Spring Rd., Sussex, WI 53089.

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Books

Behind Closed Doors: Violence in the American Family by **Murray A. Straus, Richard J. Gelles,** and **Suzanne K. Steinmetz.** Anchor Press/Doubleday. 301 pp. $10.95.

In the 1970's, Americans awoke somewhat belatedly to the problem of domestic violence—belatedly because the carnage that occurs "behind closed doors" may very well equal or exceed the much more publicized violence that occurs in the streets. Authors Straus, Gelles, and Steinmetz are sociologists who, having examined the many aspects of domestic brutality in a number of publications over the past decade, are responsible in part for sounding the alarm on violence in the family.

In *Behind Closed Doors*, they seek to measure the extent of violence in the American family, to delineate the forms of violence and their meanings, and to examine underlying causes. This new contribution is important because it is based on a survey of a representative sample of the U.S. population. Too often research in this field is conducted using small unrepresentative samples of battered wives or abused children or incidents reported to the police. It is dangerous to draw conclusions about the total population from such research.

Using a standard sampling procedure, these researchers selected more than 2,000 families across the nation for interview. In each family (single-parent families were excluded), one adult was asked about the way conflict was resolved at home. Although the authors acknowledge the sensitivity of the subject matter and the existence of underreporting, their results suggest that many Americans are willing to talk about violence in the home.

The survey uncovers a veritable epidemic of domestic violence: an estimated 7.8 million cases of violence between spouses each year; 1 to 2 million cases of children being kicked, bitten, or punched by a parent; and 29 million incidents of violence between brothers and sisters!

The definition of violence is comprehensive—ranging from throwing things to pushing, grabbing, shoving, or slapping, to using a gun or knife. Some readers will take issue with the definition, agreeing with the respondents who considered many of these acts to be normal, everyday behavior. The authors regard all types of violence, however, as manifestations of the same problem, different only in degree. Even when they restrict their examination to incidents that are clearly abusive, the estimates are frighteningly large.

The authors maintain that violence is learned at home. In support of this proposition, they present findings that show that those who experience family violence as children are more likely to practice it in later life. In order to break this cycle of brutality, they say that the social norms that legitimize violence must be eliminated.

Teachers, who must deal in a variety of ways with the "fallout" from domestic disorders, will find that this volume enhances their understanding of the nature and dimensions of family brutality.

There are weaknesses in the analysis—some of which are acknowledged—and there may be a few too many facts and figures. But the book is informative and easy to read.

Reviewed by **Harold R. Lentzner,** *survey statistician, U.S. Bureau of the Census; co-author of* Intimate Victims: A Study of Violence Among Friends and Relatives.

Children's Secrets by **Thomas J. Cottle.** Anchor Press/Doubleday. 266 pp. $10.

Thomas Cottle describes five different mythical family norms in *Children's Secrets*: stability, harmony, affluence, being straight, and normalcy. For each norm, he presents two or more "life studies" of children from families where the norm is indeed a myth, and in which the children are expected to keep that fact secret to maintain a family image in accordance with the myth.

The effect of the secrets on the children can be damaging, however. A family that requires a child to keep a secret to save the family from some shame or disgrace can cause the child to take the shame upon himself. The construction and justification of a myth that maintenance of a lie requires may further damage the child's psyche.

Cottle is an immensely powerful and sensitive storyteller. His accounts are not for the squeamish, or for those of us who cling to the myth that broken homes and/or poverty cause all children's problems. The secrets described range from parental desertion to incest, from drug abuse to the mental breakdown of a father. This last caused a 16-year-old boy to run away from home and try to get himself committed to the same sanitarium as his father. Another study deals with a little girl's attempts to

cover up the suicide of her father both to neighbors and friends as well as in her own mind.

Many times Cottle states that these cases should not be fitted into psychological theories. Sadly, this statement usually precedes a section of the book in which he seems to try to do just that, disjointedly. In such sections, his vocabulary, usually clear, becomes barely understandable—even with an unabridged dictionary.

His final chapter, however, makes up for this flaw. In it, he weaves all the psychological threads together to show the dangers of secrets, myths, and shame for all children.

Reviewed by **Charles L. Head,** *chemistry teacher, Hillcrest High School, Dallas. In an interview with* Today's Education *("Meet Charles Head," September-October 1979), Mr. Head described his work with students who have serious problems at home and school.*

He and She: How Children Develop Their Sex-Role Identity by **Jeanne Brooks-Gunn** and **Wendy Matthews.** Prentice-Hall. 338 pp. $12.95; paper, $6.95.

In *He and She*, the authors summarize and describe the research on the development of sex identity and sex roles. For each developmental period in a child's life, they describe the physiological differences between girls and boys; examine the kinds of sex roles expected and permitted for that age group; and, finally, explore the reactions and perceptions of girls and boys as they view themselves and the other sex.

The authors find that physiological differences between boys and girls do of course exist at birth, but that far more significant in developing sex roles are the actions of adults toward babies as they develop. The perceptions of many adults about differences between the sexes in strength, beauty, and reactions to stimuli are not founded in reality. Still, differing adult reactions to the same behavior exhibited by girls and boys have far-reaching effects on their development of sex roles.

The authors conclude that children identify with their own gender by age two or three and have very rigid notions of what are proper roles for women and men by the time they go to school. Still, with widening experiences and greater maturity, they show lessening resistance to nonstereotyped roles as they grow older. Here, the authors suggest, the school can play an important part. Active intervention can, for example, counteract the familiar "fear of success" that emerges in elementary school girls or the notion that develops among young boys that reading is a "girls' " activity.

Of the characteristics likely to affect school performance, the authors find evidence that one—spatial ability—may be "influenced by a sex-linked recessive gene, which males are more likely to express." This would mean simply that males would be more likely than females to be born with spatial ability. Most investigators who propound this hypothesis believe, however, that genetic factors can only partially explain sex differences in spatial ability. Some believe that socialization is also crucial. In fact, one investigator found that Eskimos, who are permitted "great independence and freedom" from sex-stereotyping as children, show no sex-related differences as adults in scores on tests of spatial ability.

After learning the routes by which children assimilate sex roles, the clever educator or parent can plan strategies to prevent the development of undesired, and certainly not innate, sex-stereotyped behaviors. In presenting so much evidence from research, Brooks-Gunn and Matthews have contributed greatly to the cause of sex-fair education.

Reviewed by **Margaret Zierdt,** *teacher, Montgomery County (Maryland) Schools; and member, NEA Women's Caucus.*

American Education: The National Experience, 1783-1876 by **Lawrence Cremin.** Harper and Row. 587 pp. $35.

In this second volume of a projected three-volume history of American education, Cremin traces the emergence of a distinctive American system during the early to middle nineteenth century. This system was indebted to several doctrines of eighteenth-century republican ideology:

- That the vitality of the Republic depended on education
- That proper republican education consisted of the diffusion of knowledge
- That schools and colleges were the best agencies to provide such education
- That some connection should exist between schools and the state.

The architects of the Republic cherished these ideas, but, as Cremin notes, on key points they were vague. No consensus existed, for example, about the kind of knowledge to be diffused. In addition, the principle of federalism worked against uniformity. Rapid physical expansion of the country encour-

(continued on page 78)

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Books

(continued)

aged experimentation, and the growth of religious sectarianism after 1800 guaranteed variety.

The result of these pressures was a system that diverged from the expectations of the founding fathers. Where they had envisioned an orderly pyramid of schools, the actual pattern was "infinite mixing." During the 1840's, for example, Lowell, Massachusetts, experimented with a system in which Roman Catholic parochial schools were reported as public schools.

One effect of this variety, Cremin argues, is that conflicts over public education were fought out between shifting coalitions. In different communities and at different times, merchants, workers, Catholics, Protestants, Whigs, and Democrats both supported and opposed public education. As a corollary, Cremin does not accept the view advanced by revisionist historians that public education was a middle- and upper-class imposition on the lower classes. The only groups that had schooling imposed on them were Indians and Blacks. For others, the rise of the public school was an outgrowth of pluralistic pressure groups rather than an imposition from the top down.

What distinguished American education was not only the flexibility of its system of public education, but the continued vitality of informal education at home and in the family. Throughout the period, students moved much more readily than now back and forth across the permeable boundaries of family, apprenticeship, and school. Cremin makes extensive use of autobiographies and biographies to illustrate the mixture of formal and informal influences on the experiences of nineteenth century Americans.

Cremin's book is judicious, well-written, and well-documented. It should appeal both to professional historians and to lay persons. The only thing it is not is cheap.

Reviewed by **Joseph F. Kett,** *professor of history, University of Virginia.*

Campus Shock: A Firsthand Report on College Life Today by **Lansing Lamont.** Dutton. 144 pp. $8.95.

The general theme of *Campus Shock* is that the universities and colleges of the 1970's were troubled, disrupted places. Much of the text is written in terms of the students, whom Lamont repeatedly describes in terms such as these that appear on page two of his book: "unhappy, beset by tension, trapped in insecurity and frustration." The chapter headings provide a catalog of problems that students confront: Crime at the Gates, Racial Distrust, Sexual Anarchy, Careerism, Grade Frenzy, The Cheating Game, Retrenchment's Angry Harvest.

The 675 interviews journalist Lamont conducted with students, faculty, parents, and administrators enable him to provide endless examples of the frustrations students face, the problems they create for themselves and each other, and their reactions to these problems. But with this wealth of detail available for illustration, the book is not a careful discussion of thoughts of the interviewees. Rather it is a jumble of almost unconnected assertions, judgments, and characterizations.

Few quotations from respondents are more than a sentence long. Many paragraphs are merely strings of quantitative notes on the dozen universities studied. The author seems to select quotations more for shock value than for illumination. He does not even lay out the statistical facts in a systematic or comparative fashion, and he presents all the material as equally startling. In many cases, Lamont makes no explicit judgments. The reader must infer his opinions from the style and tone of his writing.

Lamont's recommendations can be boiled down to—Let's all try harder and be better people. A good idea, but not one that enables us to understand or rectify the *systemic* causes of those awful problems besetting higher education.

Reviewed by **Sylvia Helen Forman,** *associate professor of anthropology, University of Massachusetts, Amherst.*

Legislated Learning: The Bureaucratization of the American Classroom by **Arthur E. Wise.** University of California Press. 212 pp. $10.95.

No teacher today has been spared the impact of federal and state mandates on a variety of school purposes and functions—from school integration to education of the disadvantaged and handicapped to competency testing. In both the education arena and elsewhere, at both state and federal levels, increased centralization of authority for decision making about a variety of human services seems unquestionably to be the trend.

No one should deny that some good has come from some of the programs that constitute this trend. Had decision-making bodies beyond local and state levels not taken the initiative, some localities might still be unresponsive to the needs of minorities, the poor, the elderly, the unemployed.

Still unresolved, however, is the question of how much state and federal intervention in local government, and for what purposes, serves the public best. This is the issue Arthur Wise has articulated thoughtfully and clearly with respect to education.

Wise points out that the "feds" and, to a lesser degree, state authorities have been so successful in legislating and otherwise (through administrative directives and the Courts) assuring equality of opportunity that they have come to assume it is possible to legislate productivity (quality) as well. He argues that this assumption is ill conceived, that "low productivity in the educational system generally cannot be solved by policy intervention."

Rather, he asserts, intervention results in what he labels hyperrationalization of the schools by higher levels of government. He defines *hyperrationalization* as increased bureaucratization through rules, procedures, and scientific management techniques that do not attain the intended policy objectives. Wise is critical of quantitative measurement generally and competency testing particularly. He makes a convincing case against federal and state centralization of authority to mandate the improvement of school quality.

In a final chapter on "Achieving Equitable and Productive Education," he offers no easy solutions, however. He warns, in fact, that "equity and productivity issues, now intertwined, will be hard to disentangle." Nonetheless, he describes and evaluates four alternatives to incremental bureaucratic centralization and discusses some others. If this book has one fault, it is the scanty discussion of the alternatives. Less than 10 pages are devoted to all of them.

Whatever its shortcomings, this is an important book. Those for whom policy centralization is the antidote for problems of learning and teaching in American schools should consider its postulates and admonitions.

For teachers it offers reassurance that expertise, professional judgment, and academic freedom are to be valued over the mandates of federal and state authority for bringing about school improvement.

Reviewed by **Bernard McKenna,** *NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*

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